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The Week

ALTHOUGH the Hamburg and Bremen Chambers of Commerce and all the reactionary German forces of imperialistic tendency are outspoken in their indignant repudiation of Mr. Wilson's effort to distinguish between the German people and the Kaiser, there is, fortunately, considerable evidence that the leaven is working. Evidently, the peace forces in Germany are not going to stop their efforts. If it is really true that the next session of the Reichstag is to be devoted exclusively to the question of peace, there can be no doubt that we shall make considerable headway one way or another at that time. Particularly encouraging is the statement that Mathias Erzberger is to demand legislation looking to the formation of a responsible parliamentary Government at the very next meeting of the Main Committee of the Reichstag, while Herr David, the Socialist leader, is declaring that the Reichstag has the power to enforce its will if it chooses. These are but two of numerous signs that the ferment is stirring, and give good grounds for hope that President Wilson will soon be challenged by at least a more responsible Government to state whether he will deal with it in accordance with the terms laid down in his reply to the Pope.

FOR the nearest military results of the German occupation of Riga we must not look northeast in the direction of Petrograd, but southeast along the river Dvina to the important city of Dvinsk, where the battle-front turns sharp to the south for its stretch of nearly a thousand miles to the Dniester and Pruth. The German front has all the time been nearer to Dvinsk than it has been to Riga, and there is little doubt that if Hindenburg so desires the former city can be his. With that there opens up the possibility of a German advance along the entire line of the Dvina towards where the headwaters of that river touch closely on the sources of the Dnieper. Were we at an earlier stage of the war, we might have to expect a great push for the conquest of another immense slice of Russian territory from the Gulf of Finland to the Black Sea, with possibly Petrograd and Odessa as its terminal points. As to the much-discussed drive from Riga to Petrograd it is not very likely that the German forward movement will go further than an attempt to encircle the Russian right flank which is now up in the air. From Riga to Petrograd is 365 miles by rail. From Dvinsk to the capital is 330 miles. That such distances will be attempted across lake and marshland, and with the Russian winter in sight, is not very likely. There is the further consideration that if Petrograd is the German objective the easier way would be by sea. It should be recalled that the extremist elements which have worked for army demoralization are the same that are emphatically in control of the Baltic fleet and of Kronstadt. If they have given way in the trenches, their principles may permit them to open the sea gateway to Petrograd.

FOR the moment, however, it is permissible to suppose that the German effort will not extend far beyond Riga and Dvinsk. And the reason would be that the occupation of the former city is as much a political operation as a military one. The fact is that for nearly two years the Germans might have had Riga if they had made a serious try for it. One of the explanations for the delay is that the German Government was afraid that the possession of Riga would enable the ultra-annexationists to force the Government's hand. With the possession of the ancient capital of Courland and the chief seat of Kultur in the Baltic lands, the demand that Courland should never go back to Russia would become strong enough to embarrass the Government in its manœuvres for a separate peace with the Czar. After the Revolution the question changed. It was then a problem whether the seizure of Riga would not unite the conflicting elements in Russia upon whose dissensions Germany based such great hopes. Finally, the suspicion arises that the Kaiser may have been saving up Riga for a rainy day. When popular dissatisfaction and weariness had to be reckoned with, another impressive victory would be a useful stimulant; precisely as Michaelis at his first appearance before the Reichstag flung at his opponents the bulletins of the German victory in Galicia.

PREMIER KERENSKY'S statement at the final session of the National Council at Moscow, that it had yielded no practical results, will, in a more exact translation, probably turn out to mean immediate specific results. There is some practical gain signalized, surely, in the Premier's own assertion that the Council showed clearly a desire for agreement among the various parties. The most influential critic of the Provisional Government, Professor Milyukov, likewise declared that on questions of internal policy progress had been made towards reconciliation. The outstanding differences with regard to discipline in the army have not been removed. But here again two considerations occur. No definite programme was submitted to the National Council. There was no vote taken on any proposal, and consequently there was no formal alignment on the question of army reorganization. The purpose of the meeting was to permit an all-round confession of grievances, with results to be worked out by the Provisional Government. The second point is that Kerensky and his associates and the nation knew in advance what these grievances would be. Why, then, did he go to Moscow? Why did members of his Government arise and depict in dark colors conditions in the country? Obviously in order to prepare radical public opinion for changes that are bound to come by showing that they arise from the necessities of the nation rather than from the arbitrary will of the Provisional Government. As against the extremists the Provisional Government may yet be too weak to rescind formally its orders for the democratization of the army, which have resulted so unfortunately. But what it cannot do as part of an openly announced policy the Government will probably strive to accomplish in the course of administrative routine.

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IN spite of the fact that the latest British submarine report shows a slight increase over the record for the previous fortnight, Washington is for the moment in a cheerful mood about the U-boats. This is owing to the long-range view taken of the situation based on the increasing efficiency of our patrol, the development of anti-submarine devices of the non-spectacular but useful kind, and the employment of convoy as revealed in Admiral Benson's statement of last Thursday. The disadvantages of convoy are that it gains safety at the expense of time. The pace of a mercantile fleet is that of the slowest vessel, and congestion is likely to develop in port. The latter disadvantage has probably been overcome by increased efficiency in loading and unloading, to which Lloyd George alluded in his hopeful account of the submarine situation. For the moment the most discouraging feature of the problem is the relatively heavy losses which the French have been suffering. The week before last their casualties were 5 big ships to the British 14, which is a heavy ratio, considering that the French mercantile fleet at the beginning of the war was one-tenth of Britain's. There has long been discontent at Paris with the uneffectiveness of the anti-submarine campaign. It resulted in the retirement of Admiral Lacaze from the Ministry of Marine some time ago and the organization of a special anti-submarine bureau in that department.

THE executive board of the German-American Alliance on Sunday placed itself squarely beside other patriotic organizations with a vote of loyalty to the Government. This is an official recognition of the fact that there cannot be "two loyalties," and that all citizens, adopted or native, must unite under one emblem. It also spells the sad end of Germany's far-flung hopes for aid in this country from millions of Germans. How much was boast and how much sincerity in the assertions from abroad that serious civil dissensions would follow a declaration of war does not appear to be clear. "The Germany we knew," state the Alliance's resolutions, "is but a memory"; that is to say, the Germany of liberal ideas, of revolution against autocracy, of our own Schurz. The driving force which expelled the best of our German Americans from their fatherland, the bureaucracy backed by despotism, still controls. But the Alliance, all mankind hopes, is wrong when it says the Germany it knew is a memory merely. On the contrary, the world trusts that, if it is a memory, it is a memory capable of rebirth. President Wilson put his faith in this liberal Germany when he wrote his recent answer to the Pope.

THE price of $2.20 a bushel for No. 1 Northern spring wheat fixed by the Government is liberally fair to the farmer, it will mean a considerable saving to the Allied buyers, and it ought to mean a distinct saving to the American consumer. In 1867 the price of wheat reached $2.50 a bushel; between that date and the present war it never touched the rate now set by Dr. Garfield's commission. A few months ago wheat touched even $3.50 a bushel, but that rate was artificial, caused by the bidding of foreign Governments against one another, and the rush into the market of speculators who, having previously distrusted the high prices and sold short, were forced at last to find wheat at almost any price to fill their contracts. The average crop of wheat in America is such that good farmers can realize over $50 an acre gross on wheat at the price now fixed. This year has been poor, but the rate will still pay a good profit and encourage production. The farm price of wheat in Illinois was 88 cents on December 1, 1912; 86 cents on that date in 1913; $1.01 in 1914; and $1 in 1915. The rate of $2.20 now quoted in Chicago is, of course, for Chicago delivery, and for a little better grade than Illinois wheat.

JUST what reduction the fixed price may make possible in the cost of flour cannot be calculated offhand. The estimates from Washington and Chicago run from $12.50 a barrel to $10.60, both estimates apparently making no allowance for the value of the by-products. In the Senate debate on the $2 minimum placed on next year's crop it was repeatedly said that millers were glad to take the price of four and a half bushels for a barrel of wheat, and make their profit on the by-products. Upon this basis of calculation, the rate would be $9.90, with the by-products figured in and the elimination of the miller's profit. By-products ought more than to cover the miller's profit. It seems certain that we may look for a real decrease in the charge for flour and bran, and a consequent cheapening of bread. Agreements have been reached with the millers, and may be supplemented or replaced by a licensing system for them and for wholesalers. If necessary, the licensing system will be extended much closer to the consumer's delivery cart.

THE Soldiers' and Sailors' Insurance bill, as reported in the House, has been scaled down in two features of the original draft: a widow's allowance is to cease upon remarriage, and the maximum amount of optional insurance is reduced from $10,000 to $5,000. It is plain that the debate will be warmest upon this subject of optional life insurance, which some insurance companies feel trenches upon their field unnecessarily, and which some statisticians apprehend may cost the Government too much. We have heard no real objection to the principle of the plan for indemnity in case of death, disabling sickness, or injury, for separate allowances to dependents, and for vocational education for the disabled, though in detail these provisions ought to be scrutinized carefully. But it is asserted that when the Government, in addition to death indemnities, offers from $1,000 to $5,000 insurance for the duration of the war, at $8 per $1,000, it fails to reckon with the real facts of war mortality, which make $8 absurdly low.

THE decision of an inferior court that the Federal Child Labor law is unconstitutional cannot in any way be regarded as finally settling the issue, which will, no doubt, be speedily carried, on appeal, to the highest tribunal. It would be a great pity if this much-needed piece of legislation were invalidated, even temporarily, on some technicality, so as to force its amendment by Congress and a long delay. On the other hand, it would be nothing short of a calamity should the Supreme Court hold that the Constitution gave our national Government no power to protect children against exploitation. Many of the more selfish, backward States have long refused to match the enlightenment of other communities with proper child labor laws, and have offered the opportunities fostered by their own cruel laxity as an inducement to unscrupulous employers. The legislation just declared void was designed to force in

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all the States an equal regard for the health and well-being of youth. No State and no employer was any longer to make a profit out of the sufferings of little children. Never before would such a law as this have been so welcome as at the present time when, through stress of war, all industries are hard pushed for labor, and the temptation is becoming daily more pressing to fill up the gap left by enlistment.

IT is not only the children, however, but also the women who will need special protection against this unprecedented situation produced by the war. Already considerable outcry has been made against the subletting of Government work in New York to contractors employing sweated labor. But, according to trustworthy information, conditions in the smaller cities near New York and in Connecticut are worse, by far, than in the metropolis. In these communities there is not only the question of inadequate wages paid the women workers, but also the matter of bad housing. Towns with a comparatively stationary population have been suddenly swamped by an influx of aliens unacquainted with the local situation, many of them women. Naturally, there are not dwellings enough at reasonable rents to accommodate all the newcomers. Employers, with few exceptions, have made no attempt to provide for their new employees, but, on the contrary, have taken advantage of their ignorance by underpaying and overworking them. Thus the worst slums are not now in New York, but in the smaller towns near by, where there is absolutely no excuse for the crowding of men, women, and children into miserable, unsanitary wooden shacks. The Government should profit by English experience, where exploitation of women workers actually led to a serious decrease in output, and insert in all its contracts provisions for the decent housing of employees, a living wage of at least nine dollars a week, and an eight-hour day. The Government, as a matter of efficiency, if nothing else, should not allow itself to be made a partner in sweatshops and slums.

HEARST'S refusal to run for Mayor is commonly said to "simplify" the New York campaign. It also purifies it. What we mean is that the city will be saved from the uproar, the furious firing of mud-batteries, which would surely have accompanied a Hearst candidacy. By so much we are the gainer by his poor health, which alone, apparently, keeps him out of the contest. It may well be that Judge Hylan will endeavor to wield the stage-thunders of Hearst. But he is without the latter's long practice in resounding defamation, and will at best appear but a feeble imitator. His chief efforts will have to be devoted to making himself known—and in the process nothing will be easier for him than to commit political suicide. Gloomy prophets in Tammany itself are predicting that Judge Hylan cannot survive three weeks of campaigning. But it will not do for the Fusionists to conclude that they are going to have a walk-over, and go to sleep. No man can say how the war will affect the election, or be sure that the various elements of discontent will not be marshalled by Tammany into a formidable voting body. The only safe thing to do is to take nothing for granted, and to spare no labor in getting the vital issues which Mayor Mitchel embodies clearly before the citizens.

ONE might imagine that the common soap-box taunt concerning Britain's letting her Colonial and Irish troops do her fighting would be generally accepted for what it is worth. Yet the charge has received sufficient currency to call forth a semi-official denial from the War Office, in the form of figures to show that purely British casualties in recent fighting have been to overseas casualties as 6 to 1, and in the battle of Ypres as 9 to 1. To any one who has taken the trouble to compare Canadian and Anzac casualty figures as separately reported with the total of British casualties, this reassurance from official quarters was hardly necessary. It is a case of anti-British sentiment ingeniously turning to its advantage the emphasis laid in British war reports on the part played by Colonials. The motive for thus featuring the troops from overseas was in part grateful recognition, in part courtesy, in some measure, no doubt, policy. All the belligerents have done the same. The German War Office has consistently headlined the Bavarians who are to the Prussians about as 1 to 10. The Russians have given the Siberian Rifle Corps probably much more than their proper share of credit. The Chasseurs Alpins of France have rendered notable service, but probably not in proportion to the glory which has come to these "Blue Devils."

THE Governor-General of Canada has formally signed the Conscription act; the issue of immediate enforcement or delay until the expected general election is held is now clearly posed. The same organs which predicted signature have predicted immediate operation, but moderates will continue to hope that the Government will decide that a popular decision is demanded. Strenuous efforts are making at Ottawa to form a union or national Government, with Western Liberals well represented. A union Government would mean an election contest between the Conservatives and Liberals who are in favor of conscription on one side, and the non-conscription Liberals and non-conscription Conservatives on the other. Failure to achieve a union Government would mean a fight on straighter party lines. Borden's proffer of his resignation to a party caucus that naturally refused it was designed to show Western Liberals that they must enter the Cabinet under him, or not at all; for the Conservatives will not think of relinquishing him in answer to the Westerner's demands. The next few days should show whether union is possible.

BY its almost unanimous condemnation of the Suffrage picketers about the White House, the New York State Suffrage Convention at Saratoga only gave formal utterance to what has from the beginning been the feeling among the great mass of workers for woman's enfranchisement the country over. From the first the President took the wind out of the banners of the picketers by his policy of urbane forbearance. A master stroke was his letter of the warmest good wishes for the suffrage cause and its speedy success, addressed to the Saratoga convention. It is hard to imagine that the rather absurd proceedings in Washington can continue much longer. After all, the value of all advertising devices, such as the siege of the White House is intended to be, must be judged by their pulling power. People must be got to take notice and talk, in order to be convinced of a real wrong or a real need.

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Restating the Terms of Peace

PRESIDENT WILSON'S reply to the Pope was powerfully written. It proved once more the truth of the saying that a ruler who is also a master of language carries a double-edged sword. And through the apt words a bold and resolute spirit was expressed. It is, indeed, a question whether the President was not too bold in striking at the root of the Imperial German Government. The first effect in Germany was naturally to make the Junkers and the Pan-Germans exult. "See," they exclaimed, "our enemies wish to dictate to the mighty German people what sort of Government it must have. All doubt is now removed that they are bent on our destruction, and that we must fight as long as we have a man who can carry a rifle." Against this attitude, however, are to be set certain facts. One of them is the cordial reception given to the President's note by the German-American press. They interpreted it as a move for peace, in the sense that it plainly showed the German people how they might easily and quickly obtain it. Thus the New York *Herold* declared:

> We are glad that the President has defined his point of view much more precisely than before. The events in Germany seem to indicate that powers are at work which may bring peace nearer than we now know. We should be the last to say that Germany could not stand a considerable share of democracy. A "jerk to the left" would do no harm, and if it brought with it the possibility of an honorable peace, one might wish for it to-day rather than to-morrow.

Another consideration is that anticipatory echoes of President Wilson's words have already been loud in Germany. He asserts that the German Government is "irresponsible." This is no more than Theodor Wolff has been openly affirming in the Berlin *Tageblatt*. "Germans are not a free people," he roundly says; "they are subjects." And the pressure for a German Government answerable to the representatives of the people has been increasingly strong. The latest news is that the National Liberals have now joined the Socialists and the Centrists in the Reichstag, thus making an overwhelming majority which demands a Parliamentary Government. These German Deputies, if they are wise, will read carefully the President's reply to the Pope. If they are at first inclined to resent Mr. Wilson's dictation, and to say that his assertions about the impossibility of having any dealings with the present German Government are far too sweeping, they may read further and take note that he qualifies so far as to admit that there might be negotiations with "the present rulers of Germany," provided there could be added to their guarantees "conclusive evidence of the will and purpose of the German people themselves." That will and purpose are clearly bent on reform of the German Government. A vast political ferment is at work in Germany. Whether it will be speeded or checked by the President's severe tone about "the ruthless master of the German people," the event alone can show.

It is to be taken for granted that the President sent his answer to Rome only after consultation with the Allies. He must be speaking for them, at least in the sense that they will not contradict what he says. In effect, therefore, we have in Mr. Wilson's note the long-desired restatement of the terms of peace open to Germany. This is really the most significant part of the whole; for they are terms which, taken by themselves, are generously conceived and contain assurances about the economic and industrial future of Germany of a kind which German statesmen have been anxious to get. The fact is that President Wilson has adopted for his own almost all the terms of peace laid down in the much-abused resolution which Senator La Follette introduced on August 11. That resolution declared against annexations or punitive damages, and its final resolve was:

> There should be a public restatement of the Allies' peace terms, based on a disavowal of any advantages, either in the way of indemnities, territorial acquisitions, commercial privileges, or economic prerogatives, by means of which one nation shall strengthen its power abroad at the expense of another nation, as wholly incompatible with the establishment of a durable peace in the world.

To this President Wilson now subscribes.

How important this is, all will be aware who have followed the currents of opinion in Germany. There is much talk there of the absolute need of an economic peace. The feeling is that the whole commercial future of Germany is at hazard. This was explicitly avowed by the new Chancellor in his speech to the Reichstag, when he said that peace must be sought in a way to "prevent the nations from being plunged into further enmity through *economic blockades*," and to "provide a safeguard that the league in arms of our opponents does not develop into an economic offensive alliance against us." But now President Wilson steps forward to sweep away all those fears. In varied phrase he speaks of securing to the German people, "if they will accept equality," "participation upon fair terms in the economic opportunities of the world." This is the great thing which German industry and finance have been asking. The President offers it to them. We have spoken of his boldness in apparently seeking to get rid of the Hohenzollerns as he got rid of Huerta; even more bold is it for him to set aside the threats of dire economic punishment of Germany after the war, made by the Allies at the Paris Conference. Such threats the President justly describes as "in the end worse than futile," and as being "no proper basis for a peace of any kind." Here, certainly, is a great door and effectual left open for those in Germany who are seeking peace.

Lies Coming Home to Roost

"OFFICIAL communications" of the German Government "are coming into wide discredit abroad, owing to the many self-evident contradictions in them." Who says this? An enemy of Germany? An un-kultured Philistine? No, it is a leader in the German Reichstag, Herr Erzberger; and the words, which made a deep impression upon German minds, had particular reference to the offer of a separate peace which Kerensky had said Germany made to Russia. This was semi-officially denied; but that did not prevent general belief that it was true. It certainly shows the pass to which things have come when a prominent Deputy can rise in the Reichstag to declare that even the official utterances of the Government are not to be trusted. It was thought pretty harsh in President Wilson to speak as he did of the intrigue and deceit to which "the German Government has accustomed the world." But if an indignant German uses words almost as rough, the American cannot be blamed for asserting of the German Government that the truth is not in it.

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Now, if individual lying is a fine art, as Swift contended, official lying is something that has still more carefully to be studied. The danger is that one official may expose another. The first one starts a lie on its travels, for a certain purpose, and then the second, when that purpose has been served, comes out with a statement which eats the other up. And it is a curious fact that some of the most damaging proofs of German official lies have been furnished by Germans. There was, for example, the impudent fiction, embodied in the German declaration of war upon France, that French airmen had dropped bombs upon Nuremberg. But it was from the authorities in Nuremberg itself that the evidence came which showed the whole thing to be an unblushing falsehood.

Other Germans are dealing with other German lies in the same way. A member of the German General Staff, Gen. Freytag-Loringhoven, has been publishing an article on "The First Victories in the West." He was loud in praise of the German strategy which threw the French plans for mobilization into confusion, by marching unexpectedly through Belgium. The question of law or morality was not considered by this German officer, but only the military astuteness of the violation of Belgian neutrality. Gen. Freytag-Loringhoven is explicit on the point that the French high command was taken completely by surprise, and that it was not till August 22, 1914, that the Fifth Army got as far as the line Douai-Charleroi. This article was published in the Cologne *Gazette*. Yet the same German newspaper, in the autumn of 1914, stated that the Government had information that on August 1 the French had 150,000 soldiers at Maubeuge, and as many more at Givet, ready to invade Germany by way of Belgium. That particular lie, put about to justify the Belgian outrage, is thus neatly spiked on the helmet of the unwitting Gen. Freytag-Loringhoven.

Further official German lies—a whole series of them—have had to do with Austria's ultimatum to Servia and the conference in Berlin about that affair and the whole prospect of war. That the German Government did not know of the Austrian ultimatum was asserted by the Foreign Office, but was from the first flatly incredible. This was a lie so gross and palpable that it deceived no one. And the proof of the falsity, since forthcoming, was ample long before Foreign Secretary Zimmermann confessed the truth to Ambassador Gerard. The latest falsifications, and their detection, relate to the so-called "Potsdam Conference," a gathering which met early in July, 1914, to decide on risking a general war or not. The official Wolff Bureau has denied that such a conference ever was held. But this must have been merely formal. It is now evident that the truth was notorious in Berlin. One of the attacks on the Government made in the Reichstag by the Socialist Deputy, Herr Haase, related to this very matter. His words were: "We do not forget the Austrian ultimatum to Servia, nor the conference in Berlin on July 5, 1914, and the activity of Tirpitz and Falkenhayn in those days." It would thus appear that the conference was as well known as the ultimatum. Yet there we have the German official denial that such a conference ever met! Well, again from a German source, indirectly, we have the proof that this denial is not worth the paper on which it was written. There has recently been published in Italy a report made to his Government by the Italian Ambassador in Constantinople, Signor Garroni. He had been on intimate terms with the German Ambassador to Turkey, Baron Wangenheim. The latter was suddenly summoned to Berlin, and on his return, July 15, 1914, told Garroni that he had been present at a gathering of influential German leaders, and that war had been decided upon. The Italian asked what was to be the provocation, and was informed that the ultimatum to Servia was to be made such that it could not possibly be accepted. Incidental confirmation of Ambassador Garroni comes from Mr. Einstein, then attached to the American Embassy in Constantinople. He had the story at the time from Garroni himself, and was so impressed by it that, as he stated in a letter to the London *Times*, he wrote it out in his diary. This is the kind of evidence, little by little coming out, which will justify to the future historian President Wilson's terrible indictment of the German Government for having chosen its own time for the war and "delivered the blow fiercely and suddenly."

We need not labor the moral. If private lying is essentially a sin against society, official lying strikes at the root of international confidence. And it is for a long course of governmental falsehood that the rulers of Germany stand to-day pilloried and punished. If the German people does not wish to get rid of them because they are autocrats, they ought to get out because they are exposed and clumsy falsifiers.

Tinkering the Revenue Bill

WE are confident that the prevailing sentiment of intelligent men towards the Congressional procedure in the matter of war estimates and tax schedules may fairly be described as made up half of bewilderment and half of utter irritation. This is not only because of the prolonged dispute in the Senate as to what proportion of war costs should be met from taxes, or what tax should be increased or decreased on general principles. The Treasury is in large measure responsible for the confusion into which it has thrown the public mind. Hardly will it have prepared and submitted to Congress one budget estimate of war expenditure when it follows that estimate with another, wholly out of line with it. The Department's April estimate of probable expenditure for war in the pending fiscal year was necessarily tentative and preliminary. It was supplemented on July 2, however, by a further and comprehensive estimate, which was made the basis for the appropriation bills and for the Senate Committee's Revenue bill.

That bill had been completed and was ready for report when the Treasury, only three weeks after its previous statement, again increased its estimates heavily and requested the redrafting of the bill. Week before last it came to Congress again with entirely new and vastly larger estimates. No one will wonder that the Congressional debate on the pending bill has become almost chaotic in character, or that the ordinary reader of the Washington dispatches has given up in despair the attempt to discover either what the Government intends to spend for war or for what taxation and bond issues the people must prepare.

Now, we submit that all this is unbusinesslike in the highest degree. Senator Lodge has pointed out that the money for these new estimates, in behalf of which the Revenue bill is repeatedly overhauled, "has not yet been appropriated; it is not yet a charge on the Treasury; it was

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impossible to tell beforehand what the actual appropriations would be as compared with the estimates." Therefore, and in our judgment with entire correctness, the Senate Committee decided "not to carry the taxation at this moment beyond the point of supplying the money actually appropriated." That we shall have to increase the taxes—at the latest in December, when Congress meets again—Mr. Lodge conceded. But this is no time to undertake revision after revision, when not even the original war-revenue act was on the statute books, and when the expected yield of many proposed taxes is necessarily shrinking because of the delay.

The British Government met its initial problems of taxation in a very different way. In November, 1914, the Exchequer submitted its first war budget, and the tax revenue for the existing fiscal year was promptly increased $145,000,000 by Parliament. The following May, another and larger budget of expenditure was presented by the Exchequer, and taxes were increased $225,000,000. In November of 1915, another budget followed, and taxation was raised $165,000,000 further. It has been increased at every similar budget interval since then, until the total increase in the annual revenue, as compared with the fiscal year before the war, has been $2,200,000,000.

The increase in our own appropriations has been more rapid than that of England's first year of war, because we have entered the war when its costs have already developed to a maximum scale of magnitude. Nevertheless, the merits of the English procedure apply as absolutely to our own case as they did to England's in 1914 and 1915. They consist in the fact that each successive revision of the taxes, made at reasonably separated intervals, is based on a comprehensive and maturely considered budget, publicly explained by the Treasury in such detail as to leave no perplexity in the mind of people or legislators. How far the present slipshod programme has carried us from this way of dealing with the problem, every one knows. The confusing estimates, not published in any intelligible form, and the radical change in them from week to week, have created a situation in which two well-informed men may actually differ by one or two thousand million dollars in what they suppose the contemplated expenditure will be.

The way out of this absurd and exasperating situation is for the Senate to pass the Revenue bill promptly and for the conference committee to lose no time in enacting it. We do not believe that there is any excuse for disputing over even the relative proportion of war costs which shall be met by taxes or loans. When the Senate bill was drafted, it provided 58 per cent. of the expenditure then estimated by the Treasury—an unprecedentedly high ratio. If new and unforeseen requisitions make this ratio lower, it will be easily possible for Congress to consider the question of revision later on, when data for estimates are reasonably complete and when the taxes now proposed are producing revenue.

The present duty of Congress is to fix the taxes. If the probable total expenditure of the Government for the fiscal year, as the Treasury intimated in its latest intelligible budget, is to be $10,735,807,000, as against the existing appropriations of $5,668,820,000, then the finance committees will have to take the matter in hand comprehensively next winter. By its present policy of tinkering with the revenue on disputed general principles, the Senate is wasting extremely valuable time.

Drinking Habits of Yesteryear

THE sins of one generation furnish forth the romance of the next. Youth's excesses and follies are the food that reminiscent old age feeds upon. As a nation we seem to be on the high-road to teetotalism; about half of us have already entirely foresworn the cup that cheers; and the rest, for the most part, have stiffened the arm of conviviality with high-license laws, local option, and, recently, the national act to restrict manufacture of heavily alcoholic drinks. Mr. Hewson L. Peeke has very appropriately seized the present as the psychological moment to fix our alcoholic past for the benefit of our grandchildren in his little blue-book called "Americana Ebrietatis." From the extreme love with which he has labored in this historical vineyard, one gains the conviction that he must be an abstainer. Were his fondness for the warm Falernian anything but platonic, so long an association with such a subject would surely have left him, like the old Professor of Meredith's "Egoist," in a condition which precludes the writing of monographs redolent of the fumes of wassail. Horace never could have hung flasks of Roman wine in such delightfully graceful baskets had he, like Catullus, courted ardently their sparkling contents. Perhaps the only time he sang in consonance was when he toasted Fons Bandusiæ.

We were not ever, until fallen on modern days, according to Mr. Peeke, shunners of the brimming cup. At the very beginning, in the time of the first settlers, there arose that hoary superstition against pure water which still holds in parts of Europe, especially France. Newcomers could not stand the rigors of our *aqua pura*, and they were advised to bring their own rum puncheons along with them from the old country to see them through the first precarious months. After being acclimatized, they never wanted to tumble, except when tipsy, headforemost into Freedom's sparkling "rills." Our forebears early discovered that anything would do as the basis for intoxicating liquors. In the first place, every nation contributed a special form of intoxicant, the Dutch beer, the English ale, the Spanish and French wine, the Indians, unwittingly, whiskey. The Swedes wasted their wages Saturday nights on peach brandy, the New Englanders made rum from Jamaica sugar, and almost seceded when a tariff was proposed upon it. Said a heated New England legislator, speaking to this measure: "We are to act as politicians, not as moralists. Rum, not morality, is proposed to be taxed." Metheglin, brandy, schnapps, gin, mead, sangaree, spirits distilled from sassafras, these are but a few of the things the makers of a nation created, having once been acquainted with the Bacchic principle of fermentation.

> Oh, we can make liquor to sweeten our lips
> Of pumpkins, of parsnips, of walnut-tree chips,

sang our forefathers.

All drank in the old days. The price of admission to the bar, in addition to a bowing acquaintance with Coke, was a brace of bottles of Madeira. In those days the bar was really the *bar*. Chief Justice Marshall had a rule that the Supreme Court bench was not to indulge in strong drink except on rainy days. Sometimes, during a drought, or after a difficult unravelling of a legal complex, he sent one of his colleagues to the window to see if it didn't look like rain, and, if it didn't, then surely it must be raining some-

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where within the jurisdiction of the court. A decision would be handed down at once that a pint of Madeira must be broached. Daniel Webster, on a fishing expedition, addressed a large fish he caught in conviviality, "Welcome, illustrious stranger, to our shores," words which he used the next day in his renowned speech of greeting to Lafayette. George Washington broke Virginia's election laws by standing treat all round; after election he wrote to his manager: "I hope no exception was taken to any that voted against me, but that all were treated alike and all had enough." Attempts were at times made to regulate drunkenness and excess. New England, especially, early developed a moral sense in the premises. But New England paltered with her conscience; she always exempted cider, hard or soft; she has never, even to this day, legislated out of existence the theory that you cannot become elevated on a bowl of fermented apple-juice.

Time passes, manners change. Races, like children, grow up. Even our immediate mothers and fathers recall the open house kept New Year's Day in old New York for all comers, with the table groaning under a monster punch-bowl. Those days are past. We enjoy ourselves just as well to-day without the help of liquid gayety. Hitherto no nation has gone on without some stimulant, something to create for a man a hasheesh paradise which the cruelty of mundane circumstances would not give him. Our sober moments were not full enough of life to satisfy us; the daily round of work proved too monotonous and deadly dull. When social justice, about which we hear so much, takes us by the scruff of our neck and flings us out of our offices and factories by eleven o'clock each morning, and the drama and music and art and speeding about in aeroplanes shall be free to everybody, and the veriest hewer of wood and drawer of water can run over any morning to thrill at the Taj Mahal and return in time to hear Caruso, then no one will have the need of alcoholic or other stimulants. More sparkle in the average man's life and less in his tipple must be the cry of a teetotaling democracy.

Literary Dandyism

THE fiftieth anniversary of the death of Baudelaire has filled French reviews with articles on the poet who once made the world shiver. The debate on Baudelaire still rages with fury. He was liked in his lifetime by Gautier, Flaubert, Vigny, and Banville, and hated by Pontmartin and others. He has been admired since by Maeterlinck, who calls him the spiritual chief of his generation, and by Bourget, who sees everywhere his growing and impressive influence, but was attacked by Brunetière, J. J. Weiss, Faguet, and Lemaître. On the one side are admirers like M. Vitu, who finds him a touchstone of taste because he always displeases imbeciles, and on the other haters, like Lemaître, irritated at the pretensions of "a sterile figure," and Brunetière, affirming that "the poor devil had nothing of the poet but the passion to be one." With this angry quarrel the English-speaking world is not so concerned as with that very different thing, the influence Baudelaire has transmitted through such writers as Wilde, Swinburne, Symons, and Ernest Dowson. Catching up the little periodical always kind to radicals, the *Mercure de France*, we note that its leading article on Baudelaire has the sub-title of "La Religion du Dandysme." Dandyism and Baudelaire alike now seem very remote. In these stern times a none too regretful tear may be dropped over the æsthetic movement they recall.

Of course, "dandysme" is not exactly "dandyism"; it implies, the *Mercure* explains, "a quintessence of character, a subtility of intelligence, in relation to the whole moral mechanism of the world." It was not unconnected with the romantic movement which spread all over Western Europe. It was in 1845-6 that Baudelaire shocked parts of Paris and pleased others by his "salons"; it was in the same decade that the Pre-Raphaelites across the Channel founded the *Germ*. Gautier's flaming waistcoat may be placed beside Baudelaire's paletot and white stockings. Those who believe in Baudelaire's sincerity believe that "dandysme" filled the same place in his horizon as the dreams of the Pre-Raphaelites and Ruskin in theirs. It was not frivolity, but religion; it was aspiration for the ideal, for eternal beauty. But even if not a pose, it manifested artificialities and decadences that set it quite on the other side of the gulf from Gautier and Rossetti. Baudelaire loved bizarre articles. Gautier tells us that he preferred musk to rose and violet, and praised burnished eyelashes and carmine-tipped fingers; that he delighted in toilets of exotic elegance, a capricious richness, in which something of the comedian and courtesan was mingled. Nature and savagery were in all things to be corrected by artifice. There were qualities in "dandysme" and the "Fleurs du Mal" which clearly aroused the alarm of the academic critics who passed such harsh judgment on Baudelaire.

Even the moderate æsthetes, the men of the Yellow Book and not-too-wicked decadents, have the picturesqueness now of a vanished group. It is not the whole explanation that their excesses heaped such laughter and scorn on them that successors have not dared appear, but it helps to understand. The extent to which Wilde went, with insincerity patent to all but himself, is appalling to remember. England seems good-natured to have countered on his green china, his greenery-yallery chrysanthemums, his cult of knee-breeches, with little more brutal than *Punch* cartoons and "Patience." When we think of Wilde telling Americans "how it first came to me at all to create an artistic movement in England, a movement to show the rich what beautiful things they might enjoy, and the poor what beautiful things they might create," and maundering about the sunflower and the lily—"the gaudy leonine beauty of the one and the precious loveliness of the other giving the artist the most entire and perfect joy"—we have a new respect for American restraint in the eighties. Historians say that his lecture tour was one of D'Oyly Carte's advertising schemes for "Patience." It was an outrage all the same. Humbug characterized much of the Yellow Book period, whose baneful after-effects were evident for a decade. What France suffered from her æsthetes, and up to very recently, we gather from Anatole France, was ground for a revolt. D'Annunzio lived in France till a trumpet called him at once from his haven and his æstheticism. But the spirit of the age has swept beyond the silken self-indulgence, the egotistic affectation, that "dandysme" implies.

It is possible that art will look back upon the war as delivering us from worse things than æstheticism. It has had the sobering effect of all vast calamities, and much that seemed a man's employment before has turned into frippery and toys. The spirit of decadence seems to have been exorcised. There must be a new seriousness and a new energy, which will require a serious and earnest art.

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Finis Coloniae

IN the late Sunday afternoon of July 22 a ceremony of Americans and Frenchmen went on. The hurrying press handled it like any other passing ceremony connected with the war.

> Shrewd Sir Philistine sees things so,
> Who all his life on the outside passes.

Inside, there was the pain of doing even a strenuous thing for the last time; and the uncertain feeling for the future of a human work that passes from the hands of those who have borne the burden and heat of anxious morn and burning noon; and the knowledge that, even at this eleventh hour, the work must not stay though the night is coming when now all men must work. It was the passing of a human work for human lives; and with it there is the overshadowing sense that something of our America's already ancient vanguard in the migration back to Europe is passing also. It has been swallowed up in our whole people's general, national, official rush across seas to join in this war of all Humanity—

> And there rain'd a ghastly dew
> From the nations' airy navies grappling in the central blue.

The American Ambulance Hospital of Paris was begun in the first days of war by members of the American colony of Paris. For three years, less a few days, it has had corporate existence under members of the colony, who are governors of the permanent civil American Hospital of Paris. Men and women of the colony, drawing powerfully on the ties which still bind them to their own country, received from America money and supplies, doctors and nurses, and orderlies and ambulanciers to help them in caring for the French wounded. From the colony, rich men, professional men, business men, doctors and artists, women of society and of the churches, and art girls put their hands to the work; and to them—because they were known and knew and because America's Ambassadors in France stood with them—the French Government gave its wounded and the great college building of Neuilly wherein to keep hospital for them. For three years they have kept it, with what spending of life and time and patience and devoted helpful feeling none can tell.

America was neutral, but they whose lives are in France could not be. Now that America joins with France in the sweat and tumult of war, their work—the work of their colony—is taken over by the Medical Corps of the American army, the expeditionary force coöperating with the American Red Cross, which henceforth must provide. The American Ambulance Hospital of Paris is become the American Military Hospital No. 1 for French Wounded.

The thousands upon thousands of French wounded, dying or healed, who have passed here until now belong for evermore to the American Ambulance Hospital of Paris, which was the colony's work. Often its name was found pinned to their uniforms when they were picked up on the battlefields, with the prayer that they might be taken to it if they were wounded.

So, in time of need, has the American colony of Paris redeemed itself. Many years ago, Goldwin Smith, who was not an American, but a great lecturer on constitutional history in an American university, opined that such a colony, composed *a priori* of rich absentees, was a *prima-facie* justification of anarchy. With the years American men in active business came, a few and then many. After the fashion of their kind, these began coalescing in social organisms—a Dinner Club and a Chamber of Commerce—while, by parallel evolution, there started up American art students' associations and American student girls' homes and hostels with the help of these rich men and business men to whom it was thrown up that they were "expatriates." It has even come to pass that prim and proper American mothers overlook their young folk in the Paris Quarter, which keeps little but the name of Latin and scarcely more of Bohemia.

Thus the American colony of Paris changed, as human communities do. The French, to whom Americans are pleasant and valuable as they are, did not and cared not to absorb them. Only the uneasy State Department in Washington made them swear periodically that it was their intention to break their American lives abroad and come back to some community of Americans like themselves in the United States, where they would be strangers. Meanwhile they lived their lives in Paris, which is not a sin and should not deprive an American citizen of the liberty and protection guaranteed him by the American Constitution. In the last years of peace, they found a united work for their own and for Americans who travel—because it is their nature to and also their right—in an American Hospital of Paris. And that was chartered by Congress, recognizing late the genuineness of a community life of American citizens out of the United States.

Of that work of the American colony of Paris, in the suburb of Neuilly on the Seine, the American Ambulance Hospital was branch and war child. Its transfer is not an eviction, said the representative of the French War Ministry, who is chief of its sanitary service. Is it, mayhap, the warning that the American colony of Paris is absorbing into the Nirvana of that Federation of the World which it has done so much to make possible for France and America?

Betide, betide, whate'er betide—the decried American colony of Paris has shown what individual volunteering and coöperation can do when life and death depend on the doing of it quickly—and now, after three years of work in time of trouble, that which represents the state for Americans takes over their individual accomplishment as it stands for official military work of the United States in behalf of France.

For the individual among his people, for the individual community in relation with the collective, absorbing state, such has always been the law of Nature, which is greater than either.

> So it is, so it will be for aye.
> . . . . . .
> When your great ones depart, will you say:
> *All things have suffered a loss,*
> *Nature is hid in their grave?*
>
> Race after race, man after man,
> Have thought that my secret was theirs,
> Have dream'd that I lived but for them,
> That they were my glory and joy.
> They are dust, they are changed, they are gone!
> I remain.

STODDARD DEWEY

Paris, July 31

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Free Speech and Democracy

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In Mr. Herbert L. Stewart's discussion of "Free Speech in War Time" in the *Nation* of August 30, especially in his comparison of the case of Liebknecht on the German side with the cases, on the British side, of Lloyd George in the Boer War and of Bertrand Russell in the present war, it seems to me that he quietly ignores the decisive point, namely, that Germany does not pretend to be "making the world safe for democracy"; and therefore that from her point of view free speech is a matter of not the slightest importance. From our point of view it is the central and vital point. I shall not pretend to offer a final definition of that sadly abused term, "democracy." But if "democracy" and the distinction between democracy and "autocracy" are to have any meaning whatever, it strikes me that they must mean at least this: that in a democratic country the people control the Government, while in an autocratic country the Government controls the people. In a democratic country the people are finally responsible: it is for them to decide, ultimately, whether there is to be peace or war; and it is for them to say, so far as they are able to reach a conclusion, when a war once begun is to come to an end. This is not my private view of democracy. It is the view to which President Wilson has most clearly and emphatically committed himself and the Administration, in his war message to Congress and in his recent reply to the Pope. If the appeal to the German people against the German Government means less than this, it means nothing.

But if there is to be popular control of Government (to speak of no other conclusion) free speech is vital and fundamental. The history of democratic institutions will show, I think, that it has always been thus regarded. Indeed, the point is so elementary that I should not venture to put it into words were it not that Mr. Stewart affects to regard free speech as a mere detail of social order. In his view the tongue is simply one organ of the body like any other, and he regards it as a "quaint notion" that a man should claim more unrestrained exercise for his tongue than for his fist. Regulation of speech, I suppose he would say, is a question of the same order as the regulation of the exhaust of a motor car. And he thinks it the climax of absurdity to suppose that Congress may enact selective conscription, imperilling a man's life, but may not set limits to what a man may say or print. The absurdity, I beg leave to say, lies all in the simplicity of Mr. Stewart's point of view. Whether conscription itself can be justified upon democratic grounds, I shall not say. To any one, however, who pauses to give the matter serious attention, it should be easily clear that so long as the people assent to conscription, and so long as it is open to them to bring about a repeal of the Draft law, the people as a whole still control the situation. But if a people is to control, if the public is to be able even to arrive at an opinion, free speech is indispensable.

There should be no difficulty about illustrating this point. Consider, for example, Mr. Burleson's reason for refusing the privilege of the mails to the *Masses*. Now, I hold no brief for the *Masses*. Except at a distance, I have never seen a copy. But the character of the paper may be left wholly out of the question. For in the Postmaster-General's explanation the point of the periodical's offence was simply that it opposed the policy of the Government with regard to the war and, in particular, that it counselled against buying Liberty Bonds. Yet there was no law requiring citizens to buy Liberty Bonds. Ostensibly, the matter was to be left to the free judgment of the purchaser. Free judgment, however, implies the possibility of hearing both sides, and this whether the determining motive is to be patriotism or investment.

Take, again, the case of the erratic Mr. Russell—for whom also I refuse to take a brief. Mr. Stewart lays down the principle that "the conscience of the minority merits respect, but the conscience of the majority, if the case is sufficiently grave, dare not allow itself to be defeated." I am not sure that this principle is to be accepted without qualification, but I will let the qualifications pass and simply call attention to the fact that here again Mr. Stewart misses the point. For he goes on to say that "so far, for instance, as Mr. Russell's influence could reach he was likely to deter enlistment. If he were allowed to go on, no other pacifist agitator could fairly be stopped. Reinforcement to the men in the trenches would be discouraged." Evidently it was not a matter of enforcing the will of the majority, but of preventing that majority (if, indeed, it was a majority) from dwindling into a minority. So long as the majority remained in favor of war, the war policy was safe, even though difficult. What the Government really feared was an adverse majority; and the purpose was not to secure the majority against the minority, but to secure the Government against the people.

Indeed, when reduced to strictly practical dimensions, the whole question of free speech in war time comes to precisely this: shall the people, represented supposedly by the majority of the people, have the opportunity to change its mind? Is it "treason" to condemn the Government's policy and to advocate a change? Around this point Mr. Stewart wobbles curiously. He begins with the brave statement that—even after the popular voice has declared unmistakably for war—any man saying that criticism should be hushed and dissent stamped out would be a "traitor to freedom"; and he ends by saying that "it is ludicrous to say that those who may be trusted to take the first step cannot be trusted in what logically follows." As a student of logic I should like to ask, What does "logically" follow in a situation where all is unpredictable? It will be sufficient to point out, however, that when the people cease to have the opportunity to review the situation and, possibly, to change their mind—an opportunity implying freedom of speech for all, wise or foolish, respectable or contemptible—then democracy, at least, has come to an end. We may then at any time face a situation which many believe, and which by the President's words is seemingly implied, to exist in Germany now; a situation in which the people are constrained to continue a war which they would gladly bring to an end. And if it be objected that internal discussion would serve to "comfort" the enemy, then (although I believe that the value of mere "comfort" is much over-estimated) I should have to say that in a war for democracy this is the kind of comfort to which the enemy is properly entitled.

I shall therefore venture to state the principle that, with the exception of what are strictly "military secrets," any limitation upon freedom of speech in war time beyond the ordinary limitations of peace time is a betrayal of democracy. This means, of course, that the speaker is limited

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to the use of decent language, and that he is also, to the same extent as in times of peace, legally responsible for accuracy in statement of fact. And, further, that freedom of speech applies to *public* affairs and to *public* policy—which means that Mr. Stewart's legal analogies, an imposing array, drawn from the laws against libel, blasphemy, defamation of character, and inciting to violence or crime, might just as well have been omitted; they have no bearing upon the discussion of public policy, none, therefore, upon "Freedom of Speech in War Time." What my statement denies, however, as against Mr. Stewart, is that any Government professing to be democratic is justified in placing the slightest limitation upon freedom of speech by the conviction of a "righteous" and "important" cause. Democracy is not a Government of the populace by the prophets of the Lord. In a democratic order righteousness is to be determined by a process of discussion, and he who would lead is under obligation to convince. This is not to say that righteousness is the simple wisdom of the majority. The implication is rather that, under free discussion, the truth is bound to make its way. But surely it means—if we are serious about democracy—that any one who seeks to stifle discussion, and especially one who uses governmental authority for that purpose, is false to the fundamentals of righteousness.

WARNER FITE

Princeton, N. J.

"A Mad World, My Masters"

The Great Valley. By Edgar Lee Masters. New York: The Macmillan Co. $1.50.

These Times. By Louis Untermeyer. New York: Henry Holt & Co. $1.25 net.

The Jig of Forslin. By Conrad Aiken. Boston: The Four Seas Co. $1.25 net.

An April Elegy. By Arthur Davison Ficke. New York: Mitchell Kennerley. $1.25 net.

Sea Garden: Imagist Poems. By H. D. The New Poetry Series. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co. 75 cents net.

Vie de Bordeaux. By Pitts Sanborn. Philadelphia: Nicholas L. Brown. $1 net.

Divinations and Creation. By Horace Holley. New York: Mitchell Kennerley $1.25 net.

A VALLEY is the context to a river, and "Spoon River" is simplified for me by "The Great Valley." Combine an extraordinary aptitude for docketing and filing human cases, a journalist's gift of trenchant summary, a cynicism that was half face, half mask, a constructive inspiration that transformed a parcel into a body and gave to the work the compact horror of a morgue—and the outcome is "Spoon River." Retain many, though fewer, cases, relax the conciseness, assuage the cynicism, omit the constructive inspiration, vary a good deal, poetize a little—and the result is "The Great Valley."

The book consists largely of ambitious dramatic narratives and monologues which remind the world that its loss in Robert Browning is irretrievable. Mr. Masters has outlived the infirmity called taste; and he would no more truckle to accent in a Greek proper name than he would stoop to enslavement by the grammar of his native speech. Sometimes he is plainly seeking style, as in the tale of Marsyas, the satyr who lost the prize and skin in a musical contest with Apollo: one might criticise the poem by writing "Masters" for "Marsyas." He will do tormenting things—obtuse things; he can enchant and disenchant within the limits of a couplet. He can write "The wild grape and the cherry haunt the dunes," and he can add "With odors sweet as love. To cool my brow." No brow was ever cooled less opportunely. Two-thirds of the book lies quite outside the field of poetry. Yet I am not ready, after all this, to declare that nature has starved, or even stinted, Mr. Masters in the matter of poetical endowment. He has the lyric impulse; I cite a stanza, italicizing one strong imaginative line:

> Sad stars from which the sun has drawn
> The light of life, no longer bright;
> Life of our lives, that with the dawn
> Passed, though remembered, from our sight!
> *From noonday stept the chilling shade*
> That struck the quivering aspens still;
> Thou hopeful one, thou unafraid
> Smiled—but the Shadow had its will.

In one poem of solitary excellence, "The Princess's Song," a conception of winning subtlety is upheld and conveyed by a high, though not unfaltering, delicacy of language. If Mr. Masters could but be patient and careful, if he could but placate the Nemesis evoked by two perfidious benefactors, the nature that made him voluble—he fairly dips his bucket into Hippocrene—and the destiny that hastened his fame!

The valley is apparently that of the Mississippi, and we recall the habits of the ancient river basins. We know that they were populous; that the deposit of silt (or slime) was plentiful; that they were fertile in a breed of monsters which the enterprise of recent poets forbids us to describe as prehistoric. "The Great Valley" is uglier in parts than "Spoon River," but something dimly sympathetic, obscurely fraternal, is felt here and there, as if Mr. Masters reached out a furtive hand to the reader under cover of the murk in which his responsiveness to guilt and gloom has shrouded human nature. The reader does not quite refuse that hand.

Mr. Untermeyer's "These Times" is not so acutely modern as its crepitating title might suggest. His watchword is not "hic" merely, but "hic et ubique"; there are athletics and landscape and domesticity and childhood and other keepsakes from the youth of time. Mr. Untermeyer's tonics, his muscular, open-air poems—are not unfortifying; only I read "Antiseptic" in large letters on the wrapper of the bottle. I think his poetry should cherish itself a little more. He takes his artistic obligations—sunnily; his ease in Delphi is comparable to that of some other persons in Zion. In "A Winter Lyric," for example, the first stanza is noble, the second good, and the third conducts the poem politely down the back-stairway into insignificance. Again, his verse is a little too much *provisioned* with figures. They are there because poems should be figurative—so many primroses to the river's brim. There are cheapenings and coarsenings of diction which inform us that the poet is handling the Muse with the unconcern of a husband where the solicitude of a lover would be at once more seemly and more politic. He profits by the restraints of brevity and the stanza; in space and freedom

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he unbends. He has a pleasant, buoyant lyric movement, rising sometimes to high resonance as in "Poetry," and his possession of the art that curves and crisps an epigram is demonstrated in "Faith," "A Portrait," and "An Old Maid."

Mr. Untermeyer should give us nothing but his best. His qualified modernity, his union of sanity with advance, might make him valuable to us in the double capacity of a goad to the sluggards and a bridle for the runaways. The sonnet "To a Gentleman Reformer" needs corrective touches both in style and in teaching, but its dramatic energy is unmistakable.

> Keep it—your torn and rotting decency,
> Your antique toga with its quaint misfit,
> Keep it; the world has little use for it,
> Or swaddled truths too frightened to be free.
> This is no time for sick humility,
> Or queasy goodness without strength enough
> To dare the keen and hungry edge of love,
> Or fear that wraps itself in chastity.
>
> Hide in its crumbling folds. How should you know
> That virtue may be dirty and can grow
> Furtive and festering in a mind obscene?
> How should you know the world's glad, vulgar heart;
> The sensual health that is the richest part
> Of life; so frankly carnal—and so clean?

No physician should be more popular than Mr. Untermeyer. His prescription for dyspepsia is Welsh rabbit.

In "The Jig of Forslin" the author of "Turns and Movies" is his characteristic self in a quieter mood. He has not tempered the rashness of his colors, but, by substituting vision for reality, he has in a manner lowered the gas, and, in the restful though morbid twilight, effects are more poetical and less repulsive. Mr. Aiken proposes to traverse the gamut of human psychology, and those for whom a kiss and a stab exhaust the significance of life will have no fault to find with the comprehensiveness of his treatment. Mr. Aiken's themes might be described as viperine; and, granting this aim, it may also be granted that the charm proper to ophidians is by no means absent from his poetry. The following passage exemplifies an allied but higher charm:

> Thrice in the night a horn was blown,
> And then it seemed that I had known,
> For ages even before my birth,
> When I was out with wind and fire,
> And had not bargained yet with earth,
> That this same night the horn would blow
> To call me forth. And I would go.
> And so, as haunted dead might do,
> I drew the bolt and dropped the chain,
> And stood in dream, and only knew
> The door had opened and closed again.

Mr. Aiken employs many verse-forms, including free verse. He is a born metrist, and in his free metre I sometimes—not always—divine his perception of the truth to which his "co-mates and brothers in exile" are so hopelessly blind, that poems, like souls, are saved, not in lots, but in the piece, that the question of ballad verse or blank verse or free verse is naught beside the quality of workmanship in the individual poem.

In eight sonnets of his new volume the proud and sombre note of Mr. Ficke's "Sonnets of a Portrait-Painter" is audible in renewed vigor and beauty. Next in merit to these poems, which in their fine combination of the princely and the austere suggest a noble who has retreated to the cloister, I should place, I think, "Seven Japanese Paintings." A man who seeks pictures in reality should find reality in pictures; here, where another poet would take wing, Mr. Ficke alights, and profits by alighting. Even more than Mr. Aiken he seems alive to the fact that in free verse the tool is nothing beside the workman. In the following passage something is really done with that metre:

> The shadowy bridge
> And wandering roadway,
> The dark gnarled tree by the road
> And the pale tree afar,
> Are touched with doubtful mists
> Or emergent from lifting mists—
> Trembling in mist; born of mist; shadows . . .

That is art of its kind; beside it most free verse is conjuration.

The rest of Mr. Ficke's book poses, dazzles, and teases. "An April Elegy" is equally unworthy of its associates and its parentage; and a sort of *danse macabre* is supplied in some disillusioned "Café Sketches." Motives are inscrutable, and I may be quite wrong in my conjecture that Mr. Ficke does certain things not because he genuinely wants to do them, but because they are the ways of his *cénacle*, or rather because they are not the ways of other *cénacles* which it is his pride and pleasure to mortify. There is a "Portrait of Theodore Dreiser" in which Mr. Dreiser consumes unattractive food in unsanative quantities to the great edification of Mr. Ficke, who finds something Dionysiac and sacerdotal in the performance. In the last lines of his book he starts to seek out a friend, or, at worst, to go home and read Santayana in five "noble volumes." That is the malice in Mr. Ficke's destiny; there is always a friend between him and Santayana.

"H. D.," whose name is revealed to us in the blur of initials and the blaze of quotation marks, has written an imagist volume called "Sea Garden," which somehow calls up before the mind the pallor and twilight in which sea-bottoms ripen their mysterious growths. The verses are neither much better nor much worse than the norm of their kind, except that they maintain an inviolable decency in a field of work in which continence is distinction.

With Mr. Sanborn in "Vie de Bordeaux," we have lines made out of single words such as "Peace" and "Always" and even "And" and "But." I think this rather pigeon-livered in Mr. Sanborn; a robust soul would have made lines out of letters. The novelty would have had a delicate symbolic aptness, since what imagism gives us is the *alphabet* of ideas, that is, things *capable* of assuming a meaning if combined with their kin by a foreseeing intelligence.

Between vain sublimities Mr. Horace Holley now and then achieves a quiet success. "The Orchard" is a specimen:

> I stood within an orchard during rain
> Uncovering to the drops my aching brow—
> O wondrous fancy to imagine now
> I slip, with trees and clouds, the social chain,
> At one with nature, naught to lose or gain
> Nor even to become . . .
> Arise, I cried, and celebrate the hour!
> Acclaim serener gladness; if it fail
> New courage, nobler vision, will survive
> That I have known my kinship to the flower,
> My brotherhood with rain; and in this vale
> Have been a moment's friend to all alive.

O. W. Firkins

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BOOKS

England in Revolution

Inside the British Isles. By Arthur Gleason. New York: The Century Co. $2.

MR. GLEASON writes with a rush and a whirl. He offers a minimum of specific data and a maximum of generalization. He has contrived, for example, to fill a good many pages with comment and reflection on the new status of women without telling us in much detail what women are doing or how many of them are doing it, and is curiously successful in discussing at length the Irish question without explaining who the Sinn Feiners are or exactly what they stand for. Yet we feel sure that no one will put down Mr. Gleason's book without a clear impression that England is to-day in revolution; and of the revolutionary changes which are evolving a new England out of the elements of the old, his account is, beyond question, the most comprehensive and the most stimulating that has thus far appeared.

Mr. Gleason groups his matter under four main heads: labor, women, Ireland, and social studies, the last including a collection of miscellaneous observations for which a place could not readily be found elsewhere. By way of introduction, he offers a chapter entitled Democracy on the March; while, to complete his social studies, he adds a short chapter on Mr. Lloyd George. An appendix of sixty or more pages brings together a varied assortment of rather unrelated quotations, statistics, and personal opinions. The value of such a book depends, obviously, upon the author's background, the extent and accuracy of his observations, and his skill in summary presentation. Mr. Gleason has had exceptional preparation, of a sort, for his task. He has lived long in England, travelled extensively during the whole period of the war, met all sorts of people, breakfasted, lunched, and dined with a long list of celebrities, and delved into contemporary literature from poems and novels to newspapers and documents. Moreover, he has a practical sense for what is news of the better sort, knows how to emphasize what is striking or really significant, and commands a wealth of unhackneyed phrase which, if a bit heated and breathless, is always readable and suggestive.

What are the changes which Mr. Gleason sets himself to describe, and which, taken collectively, constitute for England a veritable social revolution? Briefly, they are such as an old society exhibits in passing from a régime of individualism, provincialism, and class stratification to a régime of collectivism. In economics, they are those which have brought great businesses of production, distribution, and transportation under Government control, raised the rewards, present and prospective, of labor to unprecedented heights, increased output many-fold, opened wage-earning occupations to women, controlled or prevented strikes, regulated individual and family consumption, multiplied savings, safeguarded the health and efficiency of workers, and taxed profits at an undreamed-of rate. In social life, they are such as have given a fatal blow to the old aristocracy of family and privilege, segregated London and the London press as no longer representative of prevailing public opinion, brought women to the verge of complete economic and political equality with men, threatened the integrity of the family as an historic legal institution, lowered the birth-rate, strengthened the popular demand for scientific knowledge of birth control, and relegated Protestantism and the church to comparative unimportance as social forces. In politics they are such as have temporarily erased party lines, developed an inner Cabinet more absolute and autocratic than any king since George the Third, evolved a Prime Minister who represents no party, brought new visions and new problems of empire and of colonial administration, left Ireland further than ever outside the pale, and bound up the existence and prestige of the nation inextricably with the good will, the resources, and the policy of the United States.

Mr. Gleason perceives all or most of these things, and touches upon them with knowledge and vivid effectiveness. What he is chiefly at pains to point out, however, is the result, or at least the tendency, rather than the process. As he sees it, the collectivist movement which to-day in England is everywhere magnifying the Government as against the individual or even the corporation, while obviously owing its immediate inspiration to the exigencies of war, and crossed, moreover, by a rigorous ministerial control more suggestive of autocracy than of freedom, is nevertheless bringing in the day of democracy. Precisely what the new English democracy is to be, exactly how far existing political or social institutions will be modified in fitting them to ideals and principles vaguely spoken of as democratic, one may not venture to say as yet; for the formulas of democracy, like the formulas of war and peace, are much in controversy; but the trend is clear. One must have known England as it was to measure the extent of the revolution which has brought it, on the whole willingly and hopefully, to even a frank consideration of democratic ideals at all. Mr. Gleason has not been deceived as to the amount of actual accomplishment. He sees clearly that what is taking place is only the beginning, and that the course of development is everywhere uneven. We cannot but think that his appraisal of the intellectual life of England, as related particularly to social changes, is quite too summary, and that his sweeping condemnation of the church would have been modified had he taken more account of certain significant religious movements which are taking place as yet in quiet ways; but his conclusions as a whole are well sustained. The day of the old order, of the England of our memory and our dreams, is passing, and the signs of the new order born of a great war multiply daily in established facts.

Escapes and Fulfilments

Starr of the Desert. By B. M. Bower. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.

The Interlopers. By Griffing Bancroft. New York: The Bancroft Co.

Behind the Thicket. By W. E. B. Henderson. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co.

The Empty House. New York: The Macmillan Co.

The Inner Door. By Alan Sullivan. New York: The Century Co.

WE are always saying that it is the novelist's business to interpret life, or to interpret character in action, which sounds like giving him a pretty clear leeway. So it

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is—within the limits of a broad channel; for interpretation is, after all, a channel. Through it we are to pass towards that desired haven which, according to our natures, we call liberty, or righteousness, or wisdom, or happiness. How shall men and women fulfil themselves, make themselves good or wise or happy? That is the question we novel-readers, consciously or unconsciously, are forever asking the novel-writers to answer, in one way or another.

Pioneer fiction answers it by bidding us get away from the wastes and complications of "civilized" life and win our own essentials, as our forefathers did. In "Starr of the Desert" two young people are being ruined by city life. They are the children of a drug-clerk of Los Angeles, a good-natured, commonplace little man who finds himself suddenly confronted with an apparently insoluble problem. His own days are numbered; his daughter is consumptive, doomed unless she escapes her city typewriter; his son, a boy of fifteen, is going the way of the street, the pool-room, and the movie world. One way out offers, involving death for himself and the removal of his children to a goat-ranch in New Mexico, where the girl's health and the boy's morals may be saved. They hate the prospect, but are loyal to the wishes of the dead father. Having fairly established them in their lonely shack, the author does not leave them to work out their problem of happiness along the familiar lines of hard labor and sheer sentiment. Not all at once do they learn to worship the desert or to be content with each other. This is not an idyll of the simple life. Indeed, with the not long delayed advent of "Starr of the Desert" and, what is on the whole more important, Starr of the United States Secret Service, we find ourselves embarked upon a very pretty voyage of intrigue and adventure. The machinery of the narrative creaks a bit at times, but the style is so far superior to that of the average performance in this kind that one may willingly consent to be fooled in the matter of plot.

In one aspect, "Starr of the Desert" is a story of the Mexican danger: the doughty Starr exposes an intrigue which is to effect a joint uprising on both sides of the border and the restoration of Arizona and New Mexico to Mexican ownership. "The Interlopers" is a study of the "yellow peril," as the subtle and irresistible absorption of California by the Japanese, whom the law has excluded from citizenship, but has failed to keep off the land. The matter of the story is better than its manner: the characters have an air of struggling against the language the author puts into their mouths; for he makes them all talk like a book. The action is impeded by various dissertations on fruit-ranching, Japanese customs, or Asiatic cholera—very interesting in themselves. The central figure is that of a young Eastern-bred doctor, who makes himself an outcast among the ranchers in Eden Valley by being friendly with the Japanese. In the event, he wins his lady and reëstablishes himself in the world by discovering a serum for Asiatic cholera. But he does not solve, or even help to solve, the problem of the Californian and his Japanese rival. Not all the white man's law and gospel can dislodge the yellow man when he has once set foot in Eden Valley—an interloper destined in no long time to be acknowledged as master of the premises. The Jap, in fact, is the lustier pioneer, and with a backing of Oriental gold and Oriental cunning more than a match for the Western-born.

"Behind the Thicket" suggests the finding of happiness through another sort of "return to nature." Less delicately it treads the ground which Mr. Forrest Reid touched recently in "The Spring Song." There, it may be recalled, was a boy-spirit, half-attuned to the ancient pagan nature, failing of life because, alter all, the day of the gods of wood and stream is over. Here, on the contrary, is a fantasy which (more in the mood of Mr. Blackwood) permits a modern youth to rediscover and repossess that fabled beauty, only to lose it through the jealous vengeance of a god. Or, rather, the brief Third Book is such a fantasy, with its unity of mood and feeling. The three hundred pages that precede these fifty lack such unity—consciously, no doubt, since they present the struggle of Michael's primitive self with the complex trivialities of English middle-class life in the twentieth century. Still, the light and acid social satire of Book I appears to break rather than develop into the social and moral gloom of Book II, and the final episode presents a further sharp reaction. "The world is too much with us." Michael's escape to the forest which has always dimly lured him, his reversion to a faun-like estate, and his union with the nymph who has waited for him through the ages symbolize escape from all that magnified pettiness and enslavement which is called civilization. But such escape is, after all, impossible; the human mortal taint is on him, and in the hour of his first ecstasy he is slain by the arrow of vengeful Dionysos. The gods live, but mortals may no longer safely seek them.

"The Empty House" is an anonymous handling of the modern woman's problem of self-fulfilment. It does not identify self-fulfilment, as the feminists do, with self-assertion, or, as the sentimentalists do, with self-sacrifice. It does not touch the unmarried woman's status, or the still more burning question of "economic independence" for married women. Its theme is the need of sex-fulfilment for the

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American wife, through motherhood. The wife in evidence, who is her own witness and judge, has grown up, under the example of her own mother's fate, in the fear of maternity. She dreads marriage for what it threatens, and will not marry until it is understood that she is to have no children. Between herself and her young husband exists a possible basis of friendship as well as that passionate relation which is to go through the inevitable phases. "The need of a world of men" asserts itself for the husband; the wife is left to her own resources, her clothes, her bridge, her idle-restless occupations of the servanted and childless city-woman. Her husband remains her preoccupation, while his work more and more absorbs him, as a man's own work will. In her will to possess him, she begins to prey upon him; in the end, by her exactions and by her secret and disastrous interference with his career, she brings about his ruin and his death. And it is all traceable to that "over-sexed" condition of the American woman which, according to the German scientist of the story, condemns her, in default of motherhood, to destroy her mate. "A strange creature—self-punished—self-destroyed. Yes. She will destroy the world with love; herself she must destroy. But first, before herself, the thing she loves!" A special plea, if you like, but vigorously embodied in a tale well told.

"The Inner Door" is a door of revelation through which the youth of the story passes from good-humored acceptance of the world as a pleasant place to knowledge of it as a world of fellow-men. Kenneth Landon finds the path of self-fulfilment in service to his kind. The story has no striking novelty of material, with its business of Capital and Labor, its well-born lad stripped of his wealth, masquerading as a worker in a mill, and presently allying himself with the workers against forces of oppression of which he has been unconsciously a product, or a protégé. Two women have their part in the action: the beautiful and worldly young creature to whom, before the beginning of his experiment, he has engaged himself, and who happens to own the mill in which that experiment is set; and the brave and all-womanly daughter of the people, who is to be his true mate. Greta's father, Schmer, is yet another of those Christ figures—and by no means the least impressive of them—by means of which modern story-tellers have pointed their contrast between the true faith and the false.

Notes from the Capital

Leslie M. Shaw

THAT was a characteristic contrast between two men which was revealed by the newspapers in recording, on the same day, subscriptions to the Liberty Loan by ex-Secretary Bryan of $1,000 and by ex-Secretary Shaw of $10,000. It was not the first time they had widely differed on the question of sustaining the public credit. In the year when Bryan was making his whirlwind campaign through the West soliciting votes for the Presidency on the strength of the free-silver-coinage millstone he had hung about the neck of his party, Shaw was making his mark by standing stiff for a dollar worth one hundred cents, and making people listen to the arguments for honest dealing. Fortunately, not only his State but the whole country eventually sided with him, and the day was saved.

Leslie Mortier Shaw is one of the "Eastern men with Western characteristics" with whom Chauncey Depew once classed Roosevelt. Like Roosevelt, he owes his career partly to accident. Born and reared on his father's farm in Vermont, he had never travelled further than perhaps the next county; but, being called upon, towards the end of his course at the local academy, to write a "piece" to read before an audience of his neighbors, he chose for his subject "The Great West," and drew his material from various books and pamphlets within his reach. The research this involved stirred his ambition to see that wonderful country; so, having an uncle who was a farmer in Iowa, he presently packed his small belongings and started for that State. It so happened that a country college was near enough to his uncle's farm to enable him to attend it, and he worked his way through by farm labor during term time and peddling nursery stock about the surrounding district in vacations. His college course decided him to study law; but after his admission to the bar another idea seized him. Back in Vermont he had often heard the more well-to-do people complain that they could get so little income from their investments in their own region; in rural Iowa, on the other hand, the farmers were complaining that they had to pay extortionate rates of interest to neighboring banks for every loan they obtained on mortgage security. Why, then, wondered young Shaw, should not the two classes be brought together, so that the Eastern lenders could get better returns and the Western borrowers more reasonable rates of interest, and the fellow who stood between them a comfortable commission for his services? The thought was father to the deed, and in a comparatively little while the two parties were enjoying the change, and he was the commission man in the middle.

His system proved an abundant success, and was in full swing when the free-silver coinage epidemic swept over the West. Shaw read in it the doom of the structure he had so industriously built up, unless it could be checked in time. Bryan, fresh from the temporary triumph of his "Cross of Gold" speech, was galloping through Iowa, and came to the town where Shaw was living. Shaw heard him, realized the plausibility of his plea for silver, and felt deeply his own ignorance of the ramifications of the subject and his inexperience in argumentative speaking outside of a courtroom. But he gathered all the financial literature he could, shut himself up through most of his spare hours in a little room in the basement of his house, and bent to the task of answering Bryan. A local meeting gave him the opportunity of trying his speech "on a dog," as the actors say, and he woke the next morning to find himself famous. From that moment till election day he had barely an hour to himself, so persistently did invitations pour in from all parts of the State; but when the returns were announced, and Iowa was found in the sound-money column with a plurality of more than sixty-five thousand to her credit, the one remark heard on every side in the camp of the victors was: "Next year we elect a Governor, and Leslie Shaw has nominated himself by his work this fall."

It was while he was Governor that he met Roosevelt, who, running for Vice-President on the McKinley ticket, passed through Iowa on a stumping tour. Shaw, as a matter of courtesy, joined him on his journey through the State, and, with his ingenuity, his quaint ways, his good stories, and his bottomless fund of humor, quite captivated the candidate. On succeeding McKinley in the Presidency, Roosevelt asked Gage to remain at the head of the Treasury,

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but Gage, who was used to a more conservative and moderate-paced chief, feared that they might not get along together for a protracted pull and insisted on retiring after a few months. Instantly, the thought of Shaw's brilliant fight for sound money recurred to the President's mind, and Shaw was called to the Secretaryship. The rest of his life-story is too much in the ordinary vein to call for recital here.

Every Cabinet officer is remembered in Washington for certain peculiarities, personal or official. Those most commonly associated with Shaw have to do with his whitened hair and moustache, his surplus toe on each foot, his habit of fumbling at some article of dress on the man he is talking to at close range, and his manner of parrying unwelcome questions. An offer he once received, and was considering, of a site for a public building, disturbed the real estate agents a good deal, for they could not ascertain the price demanded, which might sharply affect the prices set on other land near by. One broker, who believed he could worm out the facts by indirection, sought Shaw at the Treasury. "Have you closed yet with Smith for his lot, Mr. Secretary?" he inquired innocently.

"Not yet," answered Shaw, without looking up from a letter he was writing.

"What does he ask for it?"

"About twice as much as it's worth."

Here was an opening at last.

"And what do you consider it worth, Mr. Secretary?"

"About one-half what he asks for it."

Not till the discomfited broker turned to leave did the Secretary let his eyes stray from the paper before him, and then it was only to look after the retreating figure with a shrewd smile of satisfaction. TATTLER

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Finance

Our War Estimates

THERE have been several different causes contributory to the recent financial unsettlement, in and out of the Stock Exchange—among them the question where net profits of business would arrive if selling prices were to be drastically cut down first, and then a drastic tax levied on last year's profits in excess of 1911, 1912, and 1913. But along with these uncertainties, and indeed closely connected with them, has come another and very evident unsettling influence. This is the extremely unpleasant feeling created by the loose and slovenly fashion in which the "billion-dollar estimates" of our Government's war expenditure, present or prospective, are tossed about by the Treasury at Washington.

It has actually come to pass that when an intelligent business man reads that the Treasury has been in conference with Congress, he expects to learn that the Department's latest calculations of the probable Governmental outlay for the twelvemonth have been marked up anywhere from two to five thousand million dollars above the figures which were as seriously submitted three or four weeks before. These official guesses—it would be misuse of words to call them budgets, or even estimates—appear to dismiss all sense of proportion. So far as the helpless reader can make out, they take no account of whether the billion-dollar sums have been actually appropriated by Congress or only asked for by a bureau or commission; whether they are absolute or contingent expenditure; whether they could possibly be spent, for the purpose described, in the single year to whose balance-sheet they profess to be applied.

The result, as everybody knows, is not only that no two men can agree within several thousand million dollars on what our probable national disbursements actually will be, but that nobody can add up, divide, or subtract the figures given, and arrive at the same result as the alleged Treasury computation. There is no need for wonder that the business community and the financial markets should find it impossible to continue making plans and calculations for themselves. Even from the floor of Congress, the note of irritation and protest is beginning to be heard.

Undoubtedly, part of all this is due to the rush of immense and necessary requisitions on one another's heels. Part of it may be the fault of the correspondents who report the Congressional proceedings. But a very much greater part of the responsibility rests on the fiscal officers of the Government. It is in their power to stop this unconscionable absurdity, either by saying less until all the facts are before them, or by saying more in a way that would give the public an intelligible idea of what is the actual outlook for the public finances.

The immense resources of our people, the people's readiness to throw them into the war, and the influence which this display of available financial power is bound to have on our allies and on the enemy, are recognized without dispute. Nevertheless, the process as it has been conducted is mischievous, and in more directions than in its inevitably disturbing influence on American finance. That it is unnecessary and inexcusable in its present shape, the attitude of the fiscal department of every European Government in this war, towards both the Legislatures and the public, is sufficient proof.

What are the facts? The Treasury's last request in the matter of war loans was for authority to issue $7,538,000,000 in 4 per cent. bonds during the fiscal year ending with next June, and $2,000,000,000 in short-term notes. This startled Wall Street, which at first assumed that the bond market was asked to provide all this sum, on top of the $2,000,000,000 loan already taken. But this was a misapprehension.

Of the proposed new 4 per cents, $3,000,000,000 would be used to take up the $2,000,000,000 3½ per cents already

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issued and the $1,000,000,000 more authorized but as yet unissued. These were specifically made convertible into any bond issue subsequently made at a higher rate. As for the $2,000,000,000 short-term certificates now proposed, they would be taken up in due course from the authorized 4 per cent. bonds. So far as one can make out the Secretary's figures, it is not at all $11,500,000,000 bonds for which the investment market will have provided funds, but $7,500,000,000, and of this new capital $2,000,000,000 has already been provided.

The Treasury's much-discussed "nineteen-billion-dollar budget," of which Wall Street talked apprehensively last week, was really a jumbling-together of all proposed expenditures, even when they would necessarily cover several years of war, and it threw in the $4,000,000,000 loans to the Allies, which had no business in a revenue estimate. The whole thing was in chaotic form. But a detailed estimate, submitted to Congress only a few weeks ago and carefully drawn up, fixed $10,735,807,000 as the probable Government expenditure for the fiscal year. This compared with only $5,668,820,000 in the Treasury's estimate of July.

But in the first place, the larger of the two estimates included some $1,300,000,000 of ordinary public expenditure, already reckoned on a year ago and already provided for in the existing taxes. Th[illegible]s not covered by the April estimate. But it also [illegible] $4,700,000,000 increase over the existing appropriat[illegible] for army and navy, chiefly in the Quartermaster a[illegible] Ordnance Departments of the army, and it made an i[illegible]ease of nearly $400,000,000 in the allowance for the Sh[illegible]ping Board. These and other items are not yet even a[illegible]propriated by Congress; it will take years to spend ther[illegible]

Even so, the figures ar[illegible] sufficiently bewildering. If the Government were actually to spend $10,700,000,000, its disbursements in the year would be nearly up to the $10,990,000,000 expenditure of England in her own last fiscal year, with fleets maintained throughout the world and several million men in active ar[illegible] service. If our advances to the Allies, which now h[illegible] reached $2,000,000,000, were to be increased $4,000,000[illegible] further during the fiscal year, the total of such grants by us, in less than twelve months, would exceed by about $150,000,000 all that England had lent to her allies and c[illegible]ies from August 1, 1914, to the third week of last [illegible]

BOOKS OF THE WEEK

FICTION

Aumonier, S. The Friends and Other Stories. Century. $1 net.
Burgess, G. Mrs. Hope's Husband. Century. $1 net.
Crowell, B. Wings of the Cardinal. Doran. $1.35 net.
Field, L. M. The Little Gods Laugh. Little, Brown. $1.40 net.
Flandrau, G. H. Cousin Julia. Appleton. $1.40 net.
Gibbs, G. The Secret Witness. Appleton. $1.50 net.
Hemenway, H. Four Days. Little, Brown. 50 cents net.
Hough, E. The Broken Gate. Appleton. $1.50 net.
Hughes, R. We Can't Have Everything. Harper. $1.50 net.
Kerruish, J. D. Miss Haroun Al-Raschid. Doran. $1.50 net.
Luehrmann, A. The Other Brown. Century. $1.35 net.
Maclean, S. Alexis. Appleton. $1.50 net.
Sheppard, A. T. The Quest of Ledgar Dunstan. Appleton. $1.50 net.
Tchekoff, A. The House with the Mezzanine and Other Stories. Translated by S. S. Koteliansky and G. Cannan. Scribner. $1.35 net.

MISCELLANEOUS

Chalmers, S. Enchanted Cigarettes or Stevenson Stories that Might Have Been. Houghton Mifflin. 50 cents.
Coleman, A., and La Meslée, A. M. Le Soldat Américain en France. Univ. of Chicago Press. 50 cents.
Collins, A. F. How to Fly. Appleton. $1.10 net.
Hake, T. G. Parables and Tales. London: E. Mathews.
Hobhouse, Mrs. H. "I Appeal Unto Cæsar." T. Fisher Unwin.
Hymns and Prayers for the Use of the Army and Navy. Houghton Mifflin. 10 cents.
Pier, A. S. The Plattsburgers. Houghton Mifflin. $1.25 net.
Reed, A. Y. Newsboy Service. World Book Co.
Report on the Progress and Condition of the U. S. National Museum for the Year Ending June 30, 1916. Government Printing Office.
Sheldon, C. M. Modern Pagans. Methodist Book Concern. 50 cents net.
Vreeland, H. Hugo Grotius. Oxford Univ. Press. $2 net.
Waldstein, C. What Germany Is Fighting For. Longmans, Green. 60 cents.
Walker, G. M. The Measure of Civilization. Cleveland: The Arthur H. Clark Co. $1.50 net.
Ward, Mrs. Humphry. Towards the Goal. Scribner. $1.25 net.
Women War Workers. Edited by Gilbert Stone. Crowell. $1.65 net.
Year Book of the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace. 1917.

GOVERNMENT AND ECONOMICS

Industrial Reconstruction. Edit[illegible] by H. Carter. T. Fisher Unwin.
Walter, H. R. Munition Work[illegible] England and France. Russell Sage Foundation. 75 cen[illegible] net.
Woods, H. C. The Baghdad Rai[illegible]y and Its Tributaries. Geographical Society.
Walker, G. M. Railroad Rates [illegible]d Rebates. Cleveland: The Arthur H. Clark Co.

BIOGRAPHY [illegible] HISTORY

Calhoun, A. W. A Social Histor[illegible] the American Family. Vol. 1—Colonial Period. Cleveland, O.: The Arthur H. Clark Co.
Coad, O. S. William Dunlap. [illegible] Study of His Life and Works and of His Place in Contemp[illegible]ry Culture. N. Y.: The Dunlap Society.
Ossiannilsson, K. G. Militarism [illegible] Work in Belgium and Germany. T. Fisher Unwin.
Ossiannilsson, K. G. Sven Hedin: Nobleman. T. Fisher Unwin.

SC[illegible]CE

Rosenau, M. J. Preventive Me[illegible]ne and Hygiene. Third edition. Appleton.
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COMFORT BOXES FOR SOLDIERS

A "COMFORT BOX," the work of the Army and Navy Field Comfort Committee, whose headquarters are the Hotel McAlpin, New York, aims to furnish to each enlisted man in the army and navy a box containing many small necessities which might otherwise be out of reach. The committee is able to send one of these boxes to the farthest war front for one dollar. A special Comfort Box is also being devised for the Red Cross nurses to be distributed to the noble army of women serving in this capacity with the United States forces. Contributions may be sent in the name of the Committee.

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Summary of the News

PRESIDENT WILSON'S reply to the Pope's peace proposals was presented at the Vatican on August 30 by Count de Salis, the British Minister. Although the Holy Father gave the impression of being disappointed by the tone of the note, later reports indicated that he did not regard it as entirely closing the door to peace. Comment on the note by the Allies was universally favorable, though in certain quarters of France there was a tendency to minimize the distinction made by the President between the attitude of the German Government and that of the German people. Lord Robert Cecil, British Minister of Blockade, went so far as to say that any further response on the part of the Allies might be unnecessary. From him also came the news that the President had not consulted Allied opinion in framing his reply.

GERMANY'S criticism of the note, as was to be expected, was with few exceptions violently hostile. Yet even in these bitter attacks there is evidence that the President has set the German people to thinking about putting their house in order. *Vorwärts*, according to a summary published in Amsterdam, finds comfort in Mr. Wilson's expressed willingness to negotiate with authorized representatives of the German people and admits that there is in Germany no Government responsible to the people's representatives—the Reichstag. For this show of magnanimity *Vorwärts* has been vigorously taken to task, especially by the Pan-German press. How great a spur to the democratic impulse in Germany the President's note may prove to be remains to be seen. Meanwhile the German people are being brought face to face with certain secret high-handed measures used hitherto by their overlords. Thus until a few days ago it was denied that Germany had offered a separate peace to Russia, but Premier Kerensky's positive statement to that effect at the Moscow conference precipitated discussion led by *Vorwärts* which has opened German eyes. Similarly certain of Mr. Gerard's revelations, though strenuously denied by Bethmann-Hollweg, the former Chancellor, have undoubtedly served to throw much-needed light in Germany on the war aims cherished by her Government at the outset of the struggle. Other straws are perhaps to be seen in a resolution adopted by the Reichstag's Main Committee on August 29 and calling for generous modifications of the political censorship, and the intimation that the next session of the Reichstag will take up in a thorough way the question of peace.

VICISSITUDES of the People's Council of America for Democracy and Peace attracted to that organization during the past week probably a greater amount of interest than its proposals might warrant. Expecting originally to hold a meeting in Minneapolis, it found itself committed, owing to the action of the Governors of various States, to a pathetic odyssey. Barred from Minnesota, North Dakota, and Wisconsin, its members turned to Chicago, hoping still for a hearing in Washington. Here, too, they found an order from Gov. Lowden prohibiting the meeting, yet they were rescued from their difficulties for a few hours on Sunday by Chicago's "neutral" mayor. They convened long enough to make a number of speeches and to appoint a national executive committee. In the meantime the conference of the American Alliance for Labor and Democracy, which met in Minneapolis this week for the purpose of upholding the Government in its fight against German autocracy, received the hearty approval of President Wilson. In his letter to Mr. Gompers, the President hit those obstructionists hard who are continually asserting that the United States in resisting and attempting to punish German treachery is not supported by the majority of its citizens.

THE Russian National Conference was brought to a close on August 29 by a speech by Premier Kerensky in which he reiterated the intention of the Provisional Government to stand on guard over the revolution. The conference as a whole seems to have been impressed by the speeches designed to show the need of a unified purpose in the present grave situation. Particularly serious was seen to be the disorganized state of transportational facilities, and it was urged that unless all those in the service were willing to sacrifice personal interests the country might be reduced to utter demoralization. While the Moscow Conference was in session a counter-revolutionary conspiracy, with the aim of restoring the monarchy, was discovered at Petrograd, according to a report received on Monday. Arrests were made and Premier Kerensky personally undertook a preliminary inquiry—thus runs the report, which perhaps is not to be taken too seriously.

SOME progress was made with the War Revenue bill when on August 30 the Senate by unanimous consent agreed to a final vote on the measure on Monday, September 10. This agreement was in the nature of a compromise after a threat of closure. According to the plan, the Senate was on Wednesday of this week to vote on the amendments having to do with excess war profits, and on the income tax amendments on Friday. Meanwhile Senators, like La Follette, with designs upon wealth, have been attempting to boost the tax on war profits. On Monday the proposal of a flat 70 per cent. tax was defeated by a vote of 55 to 20, and that of a flat 65 per cent. tax by a vote of 53 to 17. The burden of La Follette's argument was that corporations which have had three years of immunity should now be made to stand and deliver. On last Thursday the Administration's $11,000,000,000 bond bill was completed by the Ways and Means Committee for presentation to the House. Secretary McAdoo has announced that the next campaign to sell Liberty bonds will be actively begun not later than October 1 and that the campaign will be brought to a close by November 7. There were indications that the House in discussing the Bond bill would reopen the question of a war audit committee, of which the President has roundly expressed his disapproval.

EXPORTS to the neutral nations of Europe were regulated by a proclamation of the President issued on August 27, the measure to become effective last Thursday. The Administrative Board of the Exports Council has stated that none of the northern neutrals may expect a shipload of American wheat before December 1, and then only upon the receipt of good evidence that the supplies are absolutely necessary for their own needs. This regulation takes precedence over the former agreement by which thirty Dutch ships with cargoes of grain were to be permitted to sail from New York harbor on condition that the major part of their cargoes would be given to Belgium.

UPON the recommendation of the commission headed by Dr. Garfield the basic price of the 1917 wheat crop was fixed by President Wilson at $2.20 a bushel, the price being based on Chicago delivery. This price applies to what is known as No. 1 Northern spring wheat, and is the figure at which the Food Administration will buy for the United States and its allies.

MILITARY operations during the past week have been confined in the main to the German advance upon Riga and to the vigorous prosecution of the Italian campaign. For a discussion of the former we refer readers to our editorial columns. Desperate fighting has characterized the Italian advance over the Bainsizza Plateau. According to a report received on Wednesday, Monte San Gabriele has been taken. The Austrian naval base of Pola has been the scene of a terrific bombardment, both by Italian and British monitors and by aeroplanes, which latter have dropped tons of bombs on the fleet and forts. German air raiders attacked the naval station at Chatham, England, late Monday night, killing 108 persons and wounding 92. The following night a similar attack was made on the southeast coast of England and on the London district. As we write, no reports have come of the casualties in the second raid.

NEW YORK had a stirring sight of America's preparations for war on Thursday of last week, when the Twenty-seventh Division of the United States Army, lately forming the greater part of the National Guard of the State, paraded on Fifth Avenue from 110th Street to Washington Square. On Tuesday there was also a parade of those portions of the new army drafted from New York's various boroughs. But on this day chief attention was attracted to the similar procession in Washington, which was led by the President.

CONSCRIPTION became law in Canada on Wednesday of last week when the measure was upheld by the Supreme Court. The bill, which contemplates raising a hundred thousand men to reinforce Canadian divisions at the front, makes all male Canadians between the ages of twenty and forty-five liable to the draft, but it is expected that the number required will be obtained by calling upon unmarried men between twenty and thirty-four years of age. Sir Wilfrid Laurier, though originally opposed to conscription, has rallied to its support, now that the bill has become law.

SECRETARY BAKER, on August 31, invited a number of men especially interested in the education of the negro to a conference at which were considered widespread protests against quartering negro military units with white troops or anywhere in the South.

WILLIAM R. HEARST is to be congratulated upon his decision, reached on Friday, to withdraw as a candidate from New York's Mayoralty campaign. In so doing he bitterly attacked Mayor Mitchel and promised to be active in the campaign against him.

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Educational Supplement

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The Bigotry of the New Education

MR. RANDOLPH BOURNE is a young man of radical views who can write. This equipment sufficed to procure him an appointment on the contributing staff of the *New Republic*. In that fellowship of "stern young men of the new age" who have no use for Victorian platitudes he for some two years promulgated the philosophy of education of Prof. John Dewey and indiscriminately slated books which he suspected of reactionary tendencies. The republication of twenty-eight of these ephemeral essays under the title "Education and Living" adds an item to the bibliography of pedagogy and a name to the list of authorities who support the illusion of a science by taking in one another's—opinions. Mr. Bourne takes his opinions from his teacher, Professor Dewey, who has not yet communicated to him the secret of the geniality that disarms and the sustained power of coherent deduction that almost baffles criticism.

That, as Aristotle said before Dewey, Froebel, and Comenius, "we learn by doing"; that, as Spencer and Schopenhauer pointed out in advance of pragmatism, intelligence is instrumental, a weapon of the life force for adaptation and survival; that education is life, not preparation for life; that children instead of poring over miserable books should have a chance to fuss with scraps and to "dabble in all kinds of typical experiences"; that stiff little desks are an impediment to the unfolding of these expansive activities and to the complete socialization of the embryonic community life of the school; that immediate and spontaneous interest is the only admissible "motivation" of classroom study and work—these and similar generalized and equivocal half-truths Mr. Bourne reiterates with the fervor of an apostle and with an acrimony all his own. Dewey's philosophy, he proclaims, "has the great advantage of making nonsensical most of the writing and thinking that has been done in the old terms . . . and when I see college presidents . . . expressing their views on every question of the day in the old caked and frozen language I feel a savage indignation that Professor Dewey should not be out in the arena of the concrete himself interpreting current life." Hence the sternness of his rebuke to all obstructionists who would compromise, attenuate, or postpone the direct application of the new philosophy to all grades and types of schools. On his most charitable interpretation the conservative is an unscientific, undemocratic, and reactionary mind. He is the special pleader for vested educational interests. He is the spokesman of the school-masters and successful business men who are the pillars of his world. He can see in education only a badge of honorific distinction. He is actuated by envious mistrust of the happy children of the new dispensation. If he is "not quite so raw as he seems," it is because of the extenuating circumstance of his enforced self-adaptation to the world of corrupt school boards and superintendents in which he must work. He has a "thoroughly obsolete mind," and he does not even refer to the writings of Dewey and G. Stanley Hall.

I cannot speak for Dr. Stearns, Miss Edith Hamilton, Professor Bagley, Dr. Thomas Baker, and other addressees of these amenities. But the last count in the indictment leaves my withers unwrung. My acquaintance with the writings of President Hall and Professor Dewey is extensive and peculiar, and I can, if put to it, refer to many things in them that are hidden from the eyes of devotees. It is the disciple that brackets these names. I would make distinctions. Professor Dewey does not thickly bestrew his page with the galimatias and the quiproquos that make such books as Adolescence, and Jesus, the Christ, in the Light of Psychology legitimate objects of satire and destructive criticism, despite their redeeming profusion of chaotic suggestiveness. Professor Dewey's style, though sometimes abstract and indeterminate to the point of equivocation, is not of hopelessly pernicious example to his imitators. Even those who reject his postulates must respect the force and continuity of the dialectic that thinks their consequences through to the end. And whether it be to these or other qualities that he owes his domination over so many keen young minds, the fact of that influence proves him to be in some sense a great teacher. But he cannot expect, and I am sure would not claim, immunity from criticism. His philosophy of education is avowedly a programme of social reform, not to say revolution. It is so understood by disciples who grant no quarter to any suggestion of dissent and who make its unquestioning acceptance the chief test of a truly modern scientific, democratic, intelligent, experimental attitude towards education and life. He cannot expect those who reject his assumptions, deprecate many of their proposed applications in practice, and cherish the values and the traditions which his disciples would wipe from the slate—he cannot expect "conservatives" to take all this lying down, even when they would gladly be counted of the number of his personal friends. They are compelled to ask him to agree to differ and to resent no criticism that confines itself

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to the published page and does not wilfully misquote or misrepresent. These formidable oratorical precautions are a prolegomenon to all possible future critiques of the pure reason of Dewey's educational philosophy, not to the present slight reply to Mr. Bourne's insistent challenge.

Mr. Bourne is surprised that "responsible educators," as Miss Hamilton, for instance, are willing to give the impression that they are unacquainted with Dewey's arguments about interest. Well, I am acquainted with them. On page 149 of "Democracy and Education" Professor Dewey writes, "The word interest suggests etymologically what is between, that which connects two things otherwise distant." An impatient scholar recognizing the characteristic Froebelian style of etymologizing would have read no further. I read on and found that he actually uses this innocent specimen of *a priori* semantics as the framework of his main argument: "To be means for the achieving of present tendencies; to be between the agent and his end, to be of interest are different names for the same thing." I need not stop to explain the misapprehension, if it is one, and not a mere trick of Froebelian fantasy. It is of no significance except as, like his *a priori* deduction of the meaning of "the exception proves the rule," it may indicate an impatience of verification surprising in the scientific wing of empirical pragmatism. Professor Dewey, had he cared to do so, could have learned in five minutes from some colleague the original meaning of interest and that of "the exception proves the rule."

What is significant is the evasion of anything that could be of concrete service to the teacher. Every sensible teacher knows that merely or mainly instrumental acquisition is more interesting if the student believes in and realizes the end which it is to serve. But he also knows that the hour is short and that if he squanders too much of it in thrilling protreptic discourse, in constructing a model of a Roman temple, or in comparing "Gary with Athenian education," the class will not master their elements, will not learn to spell, cipher, or construe. His problem is to find a practical working compromise between the policy of humoring and entertaining the child and the endeavor to teach it something. The chief contribution of the philosophy of education to this is the unqualified dogma (p. 128) that "no alleged study or discipline is educative unless it is worth while in its own immediate having." Does this mean that no teacher is to inculcate the indispensable elements of anything until he has delayed to make sure that every member of the class is aglow with fervor for the end and is actually interested and entertained? I presume this interpretation will be disavowed. The sentence is merely an example of that style of absolute abstract dogma in the master which, as the history of Rousseauism exemplifies, engenders fanaticism in the disciple. "To keep the eyes on the book and the ear open to the teacher's words is a mysterious source of intellectual grace," writes Professor Dewey in a style of irony which is the obvious inspiration of Mr. Bourne's satirical vein. He has evidently never tried to teach a girl who looks at his necktie when he is construing a difficult passage for her. President Hall, taking higher ground, would approve of the expansion of the girl's "alghedonic diameter" through her more "highly vitalized" interest in the necktie. But as Professor Thorndike in one of his scientific treatises on education sensibly if superfluously observes: "If we need to study a book we can at least open it and look at the words."

To return to the disciple, I do not seriously mind Mr. Bourne's experience meeting reminiscences of his own school days, his appeal to authority and exaltation of his chosen rabbi, his invidious phrasing, his elaboration of metaphor into allegory, his iteration of the tautologous formulas of his sect, his assaults on men of straw, his dilemmas of false antithesis, his effects of contrast between his own ideals and the unsatisfying reality, his condescension to the ignorance of Miss Hamilton, his disparagement of the obsolete mind of Dr. Stearns, or his charitable hope that the Y. M. C. A.'s neighborhood houses are simply "having joyfully extended to them a long rope by which they may hang themselves." I concede these flaws of temper and vices of controversy to human frailty in others, he would perhaps say because I am a little indulgent to some of them in myself.

My complaint is that he so rarely follows them up with anything more pertinent to a definable and debatable issue, that he neglects to qualify his own statements, and refuses to take note of the distinctions and qualifications urged by his opponents and obvious to any thoughtful reader. I do not grudge him the literary effect of his satirical account of the eleven good men and true assembled in Springfield, Illinois, and convicted with "the deadly accuracy of a laboratory experiment" of inability to pass the examinations to which their children were subjected in the schools. It is an amusing, if supererogatory, translation into a practical joke of George Eliot's epigram that the ignorance of middle-aged gentlemen will never be known for lack of examinations in this branch. I am not surprised that only one of the eleven could express Centigrade in terms of Fahrenheit. For at a dinner of professors of the University of Berlin not one could do it. What I wish to know is whether we are expected to infer that no forgotten knowledge, no knowledge not immediately producible on a challenge, has been of past formative value or can contribute anything to the present total effectiveness of our minds, or as tautological psychology would phrase it, to the ability "to react most intelligently to experience as a whole." Are we to join issue on the proposition that in the teaching or the study of a subject it is never helpful or indispensable to memorize details and methods that we may afterwards allow to lapse from conscious memory? The judicious mean of procedure in this respect is in fact one of the most interesting problems of practical teaching and of the economical conduct of our own understanding. All considerate teachers are constantly studying it and varying their practice with experience, and they would gladly welcome aid from any quarter. We find none in the satiric exploitation of the crude contrast between the memory content of a middle-aged business man's mind and that of the high-school student on examination day. When Professor Leacock tells the public that President Eliot could not pass the admission examinations in English for Harvard College, he tells them what in any fair or reasonable sense of the words is not true. He could pass with a few hours' cram if the excellence of his composition papers would not pass him without it. To say that he could not pass the requirements is about as pertinent as it would be to condemn the law schools because a great lawyer could not pass all their examinations and might need to look up the law of the case before venturing into a court of justice.

Characteristic of Mr. Bourne's logic and temper is the chapter on Dr. Stearns. It begins as an inquiry how such

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a mind argues and concludes with a warning to parents who have sons in private schools to view with grave concern the prospects of a boy taught to use his mind the way Dr. Stearns uses his. I waive the question whether Dr. Stearns's gentle paper in the *Atlantic* presents one of those rare extreme cases that may be thought to justify this tone. I raise the specific issue that Mr. Bourne is demonstrably wrong in the chief instance which he alleges of Dr. Stearns's bad reasoning, the protest against Mr. Flexner's proof from statistics that Latin is not learned. Long experience with statistical philology which I can test has closed my mind to arguments about statistics which I lack opportunity or time to verify. And for this reason I shall not here use the material sent me by the dean of a great university in illustration of Mr. Flexner's dealings with the figures which they furnished in response to his request. But to statistics Mr. Flexner appealed, and Dr. Stearns merely pointed out, what Professor Forbes, Professor Adriance, and Professor Lodge have shown in more detail, that his use of them was uncritical.

The statistics do not support Mr. Flexner's inference that Latin is in comparison with other subjects ineffectively taught. And there Dr. Stearns's interest in the matter ends. He was not compiling a treatise on educational psychology or promulgating a programme of educational reform. Mr. Bourne evades this simple issue by treating the passage as Dr. Stearns's sole independent venture into the domain of scientific method and objective fact, and proceeds to condemn him for not drawing the inevitable conclusion that all teaching needs a radical reorganization.

Mr. Philip Littell does not disdain a similar evasion. He admits that Latin may be, in his own case was, more effectively taught than other subjects, but rounds upon the classicists for not demanding a reformation in the teaching of all studies. To the offensive lucidity of this painfully explicit analysis of their reasoning they would presumably reply that this paragraph is "shrill," and that the cadences vex ears attuned to the harmonies of Miss Amy Lowell and Mr. Karl Sandberg. It costs them nothing to shift an issue. Mr. Littell, in a recent answer to a correspondent, abandons his allies and casually concedes the entire case of the apologist for Latin. He would have nearly everybody study a little Latin, and thinks that the majority of college students ought to learn more Latin than they do. He was misunderstood. He was not primarily attacking Latin or refuting the argument against the suppression of Latin. He was only afraid that the American public might think too well of its struggling, provincial scholars and teachers. His one object, he tells us, was, and is, to enforce the point that the American professor of the classics does not write so well as Mr. Mackail or as Mr. Max Beerbohm. Mr. Beerbohm has assimilated his Latin. He can actually say "held their heads averse," while his admirer, after study of Pater's essay on Style, has only progressed so far as to hazard "averse from" with an air of conscious complacency, as who should say *et ego in Arcadia*. But when the master lightly lets fall "two boys occurred" Mr. Littell can only follow afar and adore his footprints, if I may venture a Latinism and a once familiar quotation for which Mr. Littell will search in Bartlett as vainly as he did for the naughtiness of Catullus and Juvenal. In his naïve admiration of the whimsical effects which Mr. Beerbohm obtains from the revival of Latin roots and in his eagerness to disparage American scholarship, Mr. Littell overlooks that masterpiece of earlier American literature "Æstivation."

> Me wretched let me curr to quercine shades
> Depart, be off, evade, excede, erump.

Further than this the force of assimilation of Latin culture could not go even in those French and English exemplars with which Mr. Littell rebukes our deficiency.

In the old irresponsible America, the opposition of progressive and conservative was a merry war of epigrams. As the issues define themselves more sharply for direct action, the debate threatens to take a harsher tone. Each party fears that the other seeks not only to affirm its own vision of good and apprehension of truth, but to annul all competing and supplementary ideals. It is assumed that the apologists for "culture" or "tradition" in high-school and collegiate education are systematically hostile to all improvements in the theory or practice of elementary teaching and view with alarm all democratic enlargement of opportunity for practical, manual, or vocational training. Whatever its justification in the polemics of the past, this suspicion is not pertinent to present conditions. It is to-day merely the tactics of attributing your own intended policy to the opponent.

The virtual suppression of the cultural type of secondary education is urged on the ground that it is incompatible with the rigor of the game of the Montessori, the Gary, or the Dewey methods in the elementary school or the development of pupils so taught in the high school. Mr. James Phinney Munroe begins his "New Demands of Education" with a reaffirmation of this unreal grievance. He knows, but does not name, a high school in which the teaching and the "atmosphere" are determined, not by the real requirements of its five hundred pupils, but solely by the special demands of ten pupils preparing for college. That could be true only in the sense that the presence of such pupils might exasperate the temper of a principal whose philosophy of education requires him to practice sabotage on all automobiles in which all cannot or do not elect to ride. The maintenance of such preparatory classes as one form of opportunity in the great popular high schools is a debatable question of social policy. But the argument that either in relative cost or in difficulties of administration it is incompatible with the other and predominant purposes of such schools is merely the tactics of unfair controversy.

The real animus of this argument is apparent from Mr. Flexner's and Mr. Bourne's attack on the private fitting school (p 161), "The private secondary school is the last stronghold of educational conservatism." Its function is (p. 163) "to prepare the sons and daughters of the well-to-do for college and so keep up the tradition of leisured and cultured wealth." Well, waiving the invidious "leisured" and the substitution of wealth for well-to-do, why not? We want no fixed barriers of caste. But we shall continue to have comparatively well-to-do classes, groups, or percentages of the population who can afford a longer than the average education and who will presumably furnish the majority of professional men, organizers of business, guides of opinion, and authors of books on the philosophy of education. What fierce doctrinaire Jacobinism grudges them the type of college that suits them best and schools that would prepare them for it? What temper of the dog in the manger will neither allow the extension of this opportunity to the public high school nor tolerate its survival

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in the private school? By what authority do they proclaim that "Democratic education does not mean the provision of separate schools for different kinds of children, or even separate courses in the same school"? In reply, they will again shift the issue and affirm that the education which best meets the needs of those who leave school at the age of fourteen or sixteen is by miraculous coincidence also and always the best preparation for a course of study that extends to the age of twenty-one or twenty-two. And, confronted with the impossibility of substantiating this, they will return to their dithyrambic praises of the completely shared communal life of the happy children exhibited in photographs of Montessori and Wirt schools. Plato satirized the orphic conception of heaven as an eternal drunk. The Utopia of a completely communized education would be something like an everlasting bank holiday or church sociable.

We are dealing, then, with a social propaganda, masking or rather frankly avowed as a philosophy of education. The "imaginative background" of all Mr. Bourne's educational preferences and policies is the socialistic Utopia which he insinuates under cover of the word democracy. The chapter Who Own the Universities? is an impassioned plea for the academic freedom of Mr. Scott Nearing, and for giving control to the "plain ultimate citizen" in order that we may be protected from the tyranny of the bureaucrat. Like our colleagues of the University of Berlin Mr. Bourne knows *a priori* that opinion cannot be free under the rule of the business men trustees of Chicago and Columbia. The one, I presume, would prefer the control of his Excellency the Cultus Minister, the other that of the Governor of Texas, who is surely the ultimate plain citizen. But to return to the direct educational issue. We are amply justified in saying that while we cheerfully allow their educational ideal in a measure and in applications to be determined by discussion and experience, they will be content with nothing less than the suppression of ours.

There is ample evidence of this in scores of available citations of typical deliverances on language, literature, art, and music. Mr. Bourne's abstract and doctrinaire rhetoric less often betrays him into such *saugrenus* judgments of detail. We learn elsewhere incidentally the grounds of his preference for Dostoievsky's vision of "life" to that of the Sophocles of Arnold's too familiar lines. In the present volume he confines himself to his broad principles of æsthetic education. They may be summed up as the repudiation of Arnold's formula about knowing the best and the substitution for it of the commandment, "Know what you like."

To find any meaning in these petulancies we must read into them the interpretations and qualifications which Mr. Bourne neglects to supply. "Almost the whole object of education," he cries, "should be to know what one truly and whole-heartedly likes and wants." That is perhaps true of the mature, the developed, the better, or to take lower ground, of the irreducible self. But to ascertain the limitations of the irreducible self we must at least give the higher self a chance. Or if "higher" begs the question, we must provisionally concede so much validity to the selective judgment of the world as to consent to "expose" ourselves to the literature and art on which its seal of approval is set. Mr. Bourne will have none of this. It is hypocrisy and slavish docility. "To be cultured has meant to like masterpieces." To be sincere it would seem we must hate them. "For as long as you humbly follow the best, you have no eyes for the vital." It is the servile cult of the best, he thinks, that has hindered America from developing an indigenous art, evolving a folk-culture, and getting "strange and vigorous expression like the contemporary architecture and sculpture of Germany"—the Sieges Allee, for example. The only idea that underlies these *boutades* is Professor Dewey's principle that the starting point of all true growth in æsthetic grace must be some genuine thrill of æsthetic experience; and if the best that has been thought and said and sung and painted does not give you this thrill at once, you must begin with something nearer home. But it is only by the abuse of arbitrary and unreal antitheses that this postulate is made to exclude all educational endeavor to bring the "integration of our sincere likes and dislikes" into harmony with a no less sincere appreciation of the best things in our spiritual heritage from Homer to Tennyson.

The alternative is not hypocrisy or acquiescence in the child's present accidental or "natural" tastes. We have not to choose between slavish docility and systematic and wilful revolt. The choice is between admitting or rejecting the presumption that we may heighten the quality and extend the scope of æsthetic delight by willed attention to what the judges of the widest, the longest, and the most intelligent experience have found most delightful.

In practice this will bring the formula "Education is knowing what we really like" very near to the Platonic rule, "Education is learning to like the right things." All will depend on the teachers. A generation of teachers, drilled by pseudo-science to believe and stirred by revolt for revolt's sake to proclaim that Homer is rudely primitive, Shakespeare bombast, "Burke and Coleridge literary sawdust"—teachers who hate "Lycidas" and prefer Dostoievsky to Sophocles would undoubtedly tend to make such study of English literature as might survive in the "modernist" school "a festering bed of hypocrisy."

PAUL SHOREY

The University Crisis, and a Way Out

WE do not fully realize the crisis that confronts our institutions of higher learning if we consider merely the losses in attendance or the necessity of keeping the plants running on increased expense and with greatly diminished income. It is that the service rendered is, after all, passive. The young men march away to war. The stream of youth which annually replenishes the changing current is to be diverted into other channels, to get a more hasty training for an emergency service, a service that may indeed be for a lifetime, though short. For this training the college of liberal arts finds no capacity. Her great sacrifice has been made. It is apparently only a maimed service that she can still offer, at the very time when she desires most fervently to be of use.

Thus it is that, in common with other patriotic manufacturers, the college offers her laboratories, her libraries, and her building equipment to the Government. The maker of things turns out aeroplanes for service somewhere in France in place of his automobiles for pleasure

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and commerce, but he still finds scope for action. The character of his product has changed, but it is still a product. It is not so with the maker of men. The laboratory is useless, considered merely as a laboratory. One could wish no more vivid object-lesson as to the real worth of a university than this: that the costly apparatus, with the noble buildings which give it shelter, upon which college administrators and alumni often felicitate themselves at the expense of the teaching force, is a dead thing unless it is used by a great investigator and his disciples. Unless, therefore, the college can offer to the Government a great investigator to make use of the laboratory equipment, such a gift is tinged with irony. And if it possesses the great investigator, he is already in the service of the state.

To give her young men is the duty of the university cheerfully accepted. To face the difficulties incident to the loss of disciples who cannot come to take the vacant places must also be cheerfully accepted. To offer empty laboratories, inactive, unvitalized, is a vain oblation. The life of the university depends on two indispensable elements: investigation, and the communication of truth. The process is one; neither element suffices without the other. To a certain extent scholarly investigation may continue, even in war-time. England has made notable progress in pure scholarship, despite the denuding of Oxford and Cambridge, and she has greatly increased, in the last few months, the funds devoted to research. The obligation upon American scholarship to see that the lamp is kept burning with an ever clearer flame is insistent, and it will be met. Nevertheless, we cannot conceive of a healthy scholarship if it is debarred from all communication of truth other than publication in learned journals or the improvement of industrial processes. So limited, scholarship becomes stale, morbid; it turns upon itself. It must communicate truth by showing to others the method by which truth is to be ascertained. Undergraduates are not always eager to learn the method; they are often contented with the formal results. But there are in the classroom of every scholar worthy the name some who supply the material for completing the process implicit in the very constitution of the university.

The crisis now confronting the American university thus becomes clear. The university cannot meet this crisis merely by passive surrender of its membership and of its laboratories; or by the conversion of its campus into potato fields and of its dormitories into barracks; still less by abandoning Greek and substituting courses in the history and practice of war. The process of the discovery of truth, the communication of the results of the investigation and of its method, must be kept intact. The problem is not insoluble; there is a way by which the service rendered by the university may be converted from passive surrender to active contribution, in a new and vital way, to the life of the nation now quickened by the sense of peril.

This solution, in brief, is a proposal to reëstablish the circuit, now impaired and in danger of grounding, by extending the function of the university to every nook and corner of our imperial domain. At first sight, there is nothing new in this proposal. University extension is well known. But such extension has too often consisted of popular lectures, of only momentary value in providing an evening's entertainment of a somewhat higher quality than a bridge party or an investigation of the movable art of Mary Pickford. It has been an appendix. The professor looks upon his participation in it as an opportunity to get away from the campus, to be entertained in a delightful home or perhaps to live in an expensive hotel in the lordly manner of a commercial traveller, or to get his name in the local papers. Faculty opinion of the movement has generally been merely tolerant; to be really interested in university extension is to incur the suspicion that one is not a sound scholar. A professor cannot be more effectually damned in academic circles than by letting the impression get abroad that he is a "popular" lecturer. Nevertheless, Mr. Nalder's interesting account, in a recent issue of *School and Society*, of how the extension work of the University of California is regarded by the people it serves; the astonishing record of Columbia University in establishing centres, not for lectures, but for real study, in every part of the crowded metropolitan district in and near New York; the admirable work of such an organization as the Sock and Buskin Society of the University of North Dakota, which is building up a communal drama in that State, and the intellectual quickening in North Carolina that has followed upon President Graham's campaign to extend the campus of the State University to the borders of the commonwealth, are illustrations, chosen at random and from widely separated parts of the nation, of the great possibilities in this form of university activity.

Now the one thing needful to make this movement a vital part of our educational system is supplied by the present crisis. The inevitable falling off in resident student attendance may be a means of showing us the dangers in some of the methods of estimating educational progress. Theoretically, colleges should be glad to have fewer students, since the burden of most presidential reports has been that the tremendous increase in the student body has meant a far greater increase in expense. Moreover, there will be a change in the character of the educational notes published in October. We shall not read, with damnable iteration, that "X University opened last week with the largest registration in its history. The increase in the freshman class . . .," etc. And the deans of the various schools will no longer be able to make their annual reports to the president consist chiefly of vital statistics—birth statistics, so to speak, to prove their efficiency in increasing their official families. We have been estimating education as we have been estimating other aspects of our national life, in terms of quantity. Falstaff's methods of recruiting are not unnaturally brought into use; even saw-dust dolls would answer, if they could be christened and made, like the goat of Akfash, to nod approbation or dissent when the professor who needs to fill his class benches recites his lecture, and they would swell the name-lists at the end of the catalogue as well as Thomas Wart, Francis Feeble, or Peter Bullcalf. But the statistics this autumn will be mortuary. Only the military and technical institutions will prosper from the conventional point of view. Anticipating this, many presidents and boards of trustees have somewhat solemnly and with a sense of conscious virtue advertised that, despite the imminent tremendous deficit, they will retain all members of the faculty on the pay-roll, and that salaries will not be decreased! All these things show that quantitative standards govern even college officers and teachers. The present crisis may help the college to find a more significant test of its worth.

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Extension work heretofore has been scattered in its activities, vague in its aims. Now there is a specific problem. The particular truth that is to be sought for is the meaning of Americanism, using this term in its widest sense. In this investigation scientist, philologist, historian, philosopher, may take part. Men, women, and Italians, to use Printer Richardson's account of his dramatis personæ, are also to participate under the leadership of scholars who concentrate their learning and their knowledge of method upon the one problem that includes every other problem before us to-day. Our unpreparedness for war is not merely a question of men and ships. Some one has said that a nation is a state of mind. We are in a state of mind. A short time ago, we either did not think about the war or we thought of it as none of our affair. Each of us pursued his favorite phantom, smiling at the rabidness of the pacifist and the enthusiasm of the preparedness crank with the same comprehending and pitying smile. Then came the crisis. We are now united, or we are honestly thinking that we are united, on the necessity of the course we have taken, despite the fact that it completely reverses the course that most of us, a year ago, thought America should follow. We try in all sorts of ways to help: making bandages for the Red Cross, giving up refreshments at afternoon teas, planting potatoes on the front lawn, joining dozens of organizations for patriotism and efficiency, buying flags and phonograph records of patriotic songs. The Pilgrims of Plenty send out a proclamation requesting all people to eat no bread until the end of the meal, on the assumption that by the time dessert is reached we shall need no bread, thus conserving it to be sent to our allies. The fact is that most of our thought of the war, like our thought of education, is material: preparation is in men and ships, food conservation, daylight saving, and efficiency.

But after the first thrill of patriotism, the response to the noble state papers of the President, the interest in the unusual, apathy threatens. From many quarters comes evidence that people are in danger of losing interest in the war. The native skepticism of the American mind reasserts itself in the mood of "I should worry." We need a deeper conviction, a more profound enthusiasm. This we shall not gain through a campaign designed to rouse hatred of Germany, or fear. Such a course would be unworthy of us, and it would fail. There is one way, and only one way, by which the deep fires of patriotism, long slumbering but never extinct, may be awakened. This awakening process is an activity precisely similar to that which makes the university a living thing. We need to understand, by means of investigation, the true meaning of Mr. Wilson's statement that the world must be made safe for democracy. When this penetrates to the very sources of life, when we see that "world" means America as well as a part of Europe, and that the foes of democracy are by no means solely Teutonic, when we fully grasp the meaning of "democracy" and are able to apply our knowledge, we shall have learned both truth and method. The nation itself will become a university, than which there can be no higher ideal.

Here, then, is a rich field for university extension. Various organizations—"Open Forums," "Four Minute Men," etc.—are springing into existence as a sign of the popular need; books are being prepared on American ideals, suitable for extension study; periodicals and newspapers are responding to the increasing seriousness of our thought. But the natural leader in such work is the university, the only means for bringing the experience of the past to bear on the present and for teaching the method of inquiry. Within the college itself, electives will be withdrawn, sections in large classes consolidated, but professors may continue their teaching in communities throughout the territory served by their institutions. The occasional popular lecture will be displaced by the actual study, by groups of earnest men and women, of the subjects ordinarily taught only in college classrooms. These subjects will be revitalized by the application to immediate needs; they will have a spontaneity lacking hitherto in many perfunctory courses given in the bodily presence of young men whose interest has been measured by their desire to get "the gentleman's mark"; this new kind of teaching will benefit professors quite as much as pupils. Study and discussion groups formed at various centres in the district served by the institution would realize the ideal of coöperation in the search for truth. For at such centres, directed by university men, there would be real study of the changing social and economic conditions, of our relations to Central and South American states, of democracy and political idealism in British and other foreign literatures, and of our own national ideals as set forth in state papers and in our prose and poetry, past and present. Knowledge of the history of Europe for the last century is of use; we shall also need to follow the example of England and find in our own literature a powerful means for defining the present through inspired interpretations of the past.

These agencies would also make use of the schools. Here, too, certain modifications would be made, less apparent to the superficial view than vital through consciousness of what is at stake. School extension work would be instituted by means of neighborhood groups, meeting at homes or at the district school-house, for the discussion of topics suggested by the central committee or by the nearest college, and for pursuing certain courses of study. The supreme test of the plan would be in the extent to which it reached the lives of individuals in every community in the nation, large or small. The little country school would become a part of the university; the university would find new tests, not solely industrial or economic, for its learning. Though each college may work independently in the service of the territory to which it belongs, there might be an advantage in establishing, perhaps through some association of universities, a central committee whose duty would be to advise the institutions as to the best means of conducting this work, to prepare and publish reading lists and study topics, courses of study for discussion groups and extension centres. As a further aid, a bulletin might be issued. Similar work has been done since the beginning of the war by certain publicity agencies in France and England; it ought to be possible to extend these activities, and even to improve on them. But these are mere details; the one essential is that the university should find in a situation that seems to spell disaster to its work a blessing in disguise, an opportunity to extend its influence to an incalculable degree.

The object of these activities would be to vivify and give tone to all instruction in school and college; to supply the proper background, drawn from history and literature, for the definition of Americanism; to set forth as clearly as may be the issues of the present, economic and social

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as well as political; to bring all these influences to bear upon children in the schools, upon parents, upon all classes of society, so that Everyman, whether farmer or teacher of Sanskrit, might be led to see the relation of his work to the business of being a good citizen. By such means Milton's vision might become reality, that vision of "a noble and puissant nation, rousing herself like a strong man after sleep, and shaking her invincible locks, . . . an eagle mewing her mighty youth, and kindling her undazzled eyes at the full midday beam." The conditions under which this vision may be realized are set forth by Milton himself in stately phrase; hear it, and judge how it is a prophecy of what we are now witnessing. "Behold now," he says, "the mansion house of liberty, encompassed and surrounded with His protection; the shop of war hath not there more anvils and hammers waking, to fashion out the plates and instruments of armed Justice in defence of beleaguered Truth, than there be pens and heads there, sitting by their studious lamps, musing, searching, revolving new notions and ideas wherewith to present, as with their homage and their fealty, the approaching Reformation: others as fast reading, trying all things, assenting to the force of reason and convincement. What could a man require from a nation so pliant and so prone to seek after knowledge? What wants there to such a towardly and pregnant soil, but wise and faithful laborers, to make a knowing people, a Nation of Prophets, of Sages, and of Worthies?" We live in this mansion house of liberty; we have established the shop of war; we have sent out men and ships to rescue beleaguered Truth, and we shall send more. Let us also complete the conditions: the coöperation between scholars and learners, studying to present, with our homage and our fealty, the new Democracy.

EDWIN GREENLAW

REVIEWS

Educational Theory

"STORY and Play Readers," edited by Anna M. Lütkenhaus and Margaret Knox (Century; 60 cents each), appears in three volumes, designed for the sixth, seventh, and eighth years. The pupil to whom this series is addressed knows how to read; inducement is here held out to him to learn to read well, to make his reading aloud a pleasure to himself and others. To this end selections from "Alice in Wonderland," Scott's novels, and a wide variety of other sources, have been put into dramatic form, a method which seems likely to achieve the editor's aim of making the advanced reading class as lively and effective as the elementary one.

"A STUDY of Fairy Tales," by Laura F. Kready (Houghton Mifflin), is a book for the teacher. The book analyzes the qualities in fairy tales which make them suitable for children of the kindergarten and first grade, and instructs the teacher in the art of telling the story. The second half of the book is devoted to the history and classification of fairy tales. It does not attempt a theory of origins or of transmission, and the seven categories of tales, accumulative, animal, humorous, realistic, romantic, old, and modern, strike us as convenient rather than significant. But there is a wealth of bibliographical suggestion, which the teacher will find most helpful in acquiring the background of her subject.

"THE Question as a Factor in Teaching," by Prof. John W. Hall and Alice C. K. Hall (Houghton Mifflin; $1.25), takes ten stories and asks about them every possible question that any one could think of; it then asks some more questions with a view to finding out what a good question is; and finally applies the principle of the "thought question" to other subjects, such as history, arithmetic, and manual training. After all, the ability to frame good questions is the nearest approach to that much-desired royal road of obtaining—and, indeed, of imparting—information.

"THE Scientific Measurement of Classroom Products," by J. C. Chapman and G. P. Rush (Silver, Burdett; $1.25), is an informing little book. It describes quite clearly—in fact, often as to a child or a moron—the several scales that have been devised for the measurement of ability in arithmetic, handwriting, reading, spelling, English composition, completion of sentences, and drawing. The authors regard the application of scientific measurement to school products as "the greatest contribution which has been made to education in the last ten years"; but they do not minimize the difficulties to be met with in the application of the various methods devised, and counsel caution to the over-enthusiastic convert. "The time," they declare, "is not far distant when, in many of the essential subjects, the progress of every pupil who enters school will be determined by objective methods"; but they realize to the full that what can be done, along this line, with arithmetic is a different matter from what is feasible with geography and history. In short, we have here a reasonable advocacy of a modern method which on the face of it looks to a layman entirely impracticable. If we are going to give marks to students, we certainly ought to try to do it scientifically and objectively; for there is nothing that discourages a student more than to feel that he is getting other than a "square deal" because of the personal idiosyncrasies of the instructor upon whose reports his destiny, at any rate in school, depends. However, this is the sort of enterprise which ought to be thoroughly tested out before it is allowed to get into incompetent and whimsical hands; if it should come to be elevated to the position of a fetish, it is capable of accomplishing untold harm.

FRANCIS B. PEARSON'S "Reveries of a Schoolmaster" (Scribner; $1 net) might more properly be entitled "Talks to Teachers." They are not reveries, but generally pleasant little chats, in which, whether the starting point be "Hoeing Potatoes," "Changing the Mind," or "Picnics," the writer invariably works round to some problem or attitude connected with teaching. Some of them sound like after-dinner speeches at a teachers' convention—if there are dinners associated with teachers' conventions. Like most after-dinner speeches, these talks seem rather flat in print. They are generally sensible, they are occasionally witty; but they abound in stale anecdotes and trite quotations, and they are prone to "announce commonplaces as if they were discoveries." All these are, of course, besetting sins of teachers; they are symptoms of what a shrewd old business man once called "the pedagogical stoop." It is probably

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better to talk over your pupils' (or readers') heads than to talk under their feet. The latter is Mr. Pearson's danger.

Modern Languages

ENGLISH

LITERARY HISTORY

BOOKS of literary history must no longer be dry; the fact is doomed and "fascination" is the order of the day. "English Essayists," by Prof. William Hawley Davis (Badger; $1.50 net), is praised by its publisher for offering "statements and estimates which are not dogmatic and final, but suggestive and stimulating." The book is, indeed, a series of pleasant lectures on a score of men chiefly of the nineteenth century, with little attempt to consider them as workers in a particular literary form. Biographical material bulks large, often thrown into convenient synopses. The facts are abundant and accurately stated, though Johnson's Latin epitaph on Goldsmith is misquoted in the all too usual ungrammatical form. Altogether, it is by no means so bad a book as the publisher's announcement would lead one to expect.

EDWIN L. MILLER himself gives voice, in the Preface to his "English Literature: An Introduction and Guide to the Best English Books" (Lippincott; $1.60), to the same yearning to mix fun with his facts. But on examination the book exhibits many of the points of a good textbook and not much besides, except a willingness to draw easy parallels between the things of yesterday and to-day. It also shows the tendency of the traditional textbook to degenerate into a bede-roll. But it offers many good suggestions for collateral reading in historical fiction, and its pages are thickly sown with apt sentences from the writers under discussion. A later edition should point out that the Prioress' Tale is not that of little Hugh of Lincoln, and that Sackville did not plan the "Mirror for Magistrates."

WILLIAM J. LONG'S "Outlines of English and American Literature" (Ginn; $1.40) reviews afresh for less advanced students the field already covered in his "English Literature" and his "American Literature." The opening chapters excellently combine a view of the development of the language along with an account of the literary monuments. There is no attempt to bring American literature into relation with English; we have frankly two volumes in one. The story does not come beyond Stevenson and Ruskin, and Howells is the only living American author treated at length. The agreeable style of the book is reinforced by numerous pictures.

"ENGLISH Literature, from Widsith to the Death of Chaucer: A Source-Book" (Yale University Press; $2.50 net), by Allen Rogers Benham, associate professor of English in the University of Washington, is really a source-book of literary history, as the compiler is careful to explain in his preface, and not a textbook or anthology. The book is divided into two parts, which are rather curiously called "chapters." The first part deals with the Anglo-Saxon period; the second, which is, of course, much longer, with the Middle English period. In each part there are six subdivisions, viz., The Political Background, Social and Industrial Background, The Cultural Background, The Linguistic Background, Literary Characteristics, Representative Authors. The materials are not restricted to documents in the vernacular; selections from Latin and French writings (always in translation) are likewise given. Perhaps we can best convey an idea of the contents of the book by indicating representative selections from each of the subdivisions in the Middle English section: for the political background, the entry for the year 1066 in the Worcester version of the Anglo-Saxon chronicle—also, the account of the murder of Thomas à Becket, as related by an eye-witness; for the social and industrial background, the account of the anarchy which prevailed in King Stephen's reign, contained in the Peterboro chronicle, and documents taken from different sources, describing the manor life of the period; for the cultural background, Giraldus Cambrensis's description of his education in Paris, and Roger Bacon's complaints about the obstacles that stand in the way of productive scholarship; for the linguistic background, testimonies as to the status of the English language in England from various fourteenth-century sources, together with specimens of the chief Middle English dialects; for literary characteristics, contemporary testimony as to the popularity of the romances, the status of miracle plays, etc.; for representative authors, passages from Wiclif, Gower, Chaucer, and others that throw light on the varying conditions of authors' lives in the Middle Ages. In general, it may be said that the selections illustrate very well the main aspects of the life of the period, both religious and secular. Professor Benham has also inserted notes at the bottom of the pages on the literature of the different subjects. The interesting materials, conveniently brought together in the present volume, are, in many cases, not always immediately accessible, so that the work should prove a useful book of reference—especially for graduate students who are taking courses in early English literature.

RHETORIC AND COMPOSITION

"ENGLISH Composition," by Prof. Chester N. Greenough and Mr. F. W. C. Hersey (Macmillan; $1.40), is in the tradition of Hill and Wendell. It has the merit of setting the student at once to the business of writing, showing him how to collect and present his material, before it assails him with nice distinctions between sentences periodic and loose, between improprieties and solecisms. The book is adorned in plenty with specimens of good writing, skilfully analyzed. If a criticism were to be made it would be that the authors treat composition as chiefly an exhibition of cleverness. They send a chiel out into the world notebook in hand and eye alert chiefly for the technical tricks of the trade. But the mysteries of connectives and a varied sentence structure have to be learned somehow; somehow the student who undertakes to write must learn to track down the *mot juste*, store up suggestions for plot and character, and think in paragraphs. Beyond such technical matters a book on composition is perhaps not bound to go; within this field it would be difficult to find one that functions more efficiently; it makes one cast about at once for a sharp pencil. An interesting concession to the present interest in the spoken word, the book contains a rather prim little chapter on pronunciation.

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"ENGLISH Usage," by Prof. Lesslie Hall (Scott, Foresman; $1.50 net), carries on proudly the tradition of Lounsbury. Point after point which Greenough and Hersey unhesitatingly condemn, the dangling particle, "it is me," and the like, is shown to abound in our best authors; therefore, it must be good English. There are weaknesses in this method, good sport as it is to assist at the discomfiture of the purist and the lesser grammarian. It may be interesting, but it is not particularly important, that Professor Hall's reading has supplied him with 189 examples of the dangling participle. The truth is a dangling participle may, and generally does, dangle ridiculously, rarely it leaps gracefully in response to one of those sudden turns of the mind which in defiance of logic are the privilege of our vigorous English speech. As in deacons, doubtless in participles, there's odds. It is the distinction that is interesting. Again, this game of authors, for into the confusion of "popular talk" Professor Hall will not venture himself, produces some absurdities. The best authors have not, it appears, written of the "setting" hen; *therefore* it cannot be good English. But "proven" and "loan" (verb) come off very badly in the show of hands, yet Professor Hall cannot bear to part with the former, because he has heard it so often; and he regards Professor Lounsbury's support of "loan" as all but sufficient justification for it. But as a history of opinion on the chief disputed points of usage the book is valuable. Its value would have been increased if instead of statistical lists we had more often before us the passages in their context.

"THE Method and Practice of Exposition," by Prof. Thomas E. Rankin (Macmillan; $1.40), is designed for advanced college students. We must confess that going through it we found to be very thirsty work. For some other mind than ours its passion for definition and organization might have its appeal, but when composition gets as advanced as this it had, in our opinion, better abandon altogether the attempt to be practical and start out as an avowed inquiry in logic or æsthetics. As such it might very well get somewhere, for Professor Rankin exhibits keen power of analysis. A professional teacher of composition could hardly fail to find in the book suggestion enough to reward him, but we should be surprised if even he were not left with a final impression of having assisted at the elaboration of something very complex out of the desert sands.

"BUSINESS English," by Prof. George B. Hotchkiss and Celia A. Drew (Amer. Book Co.; $1.08), might in an earlier day have been called the Complete Salesman. It devotes considerable space at the outset to the task of putting the writer in possession of the customer's "viewpoint." Except for the "punch," which it at once exemplifies and illustrates, much of the first part of the book differs little from the run of manuals of composition; but, matters of grammar and sentence structure once disposed of, the bulk of the volume deals in a highly practical manner with the construction of the business letter. It deals with real business keenly and informingly. Some attention is paid to advertising and to the legal points in correspondence.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

PROF. WILBUR OWEN SYPHERD'S "Bibliography of English for Engineers" (Scott, Foresman; 25 cents) is a useful list of articles on technical writing arranged under such headings as the importance of good English, the teaching of English to engineering students, and the composition of various kinds of technical papers, reports, and contracts, with an Appendix containing suggestions for the formation of a technical library. The Bibliography does not pretend to be exhaustive; indeed, one side of each sheet is conveniently left blank for notes and additions; but it does index a mass of material that the ordinary English teacher would have difficulty in finding. In scope it is limited strictly to technical composition in the narrower sense, in which sense the word "English" in the title is to be understood. Perhaps the most valuable sections are those referring to material on the use of technical terms and on the writing of specifications. No summaries are given of the articles listed, and little attempt is made to index the large number of essays and addresses in which practicing engineers plead for a broader use of literary and scientific writing in our technical schools as a means of giving technical students a broader outlook and a more cultivated manner of writing. If, as seems likely, a second edition is called for, the compiler could add immensely to the value of the bibliography by including, with the same admirable organization, some scientific material such as that in the tentative, wholly unorganized, and yet valuable "Bibliography of Scientific and Technical Writing," published February 1 by Professors Raymond, Atkinson, and Starbuck of the Iowa State College of Agriculture. The teacher of technical writing cannot dispense with the work of our great scientists and literary men, and, if his reading has been largely confined to *belles-lettres*, he needs all the help he can get in the selection of scientific material adapted to his purpose.

MR. A. W. POLLARD, the eminent bibliographer, has referred to Prof. Carleton Brown's "Register of Middle English Religious and Didactic Verse" (Oxford University Press) as one of the most important publications which the Bibliographical Society has ever undertaken. Part I of this monumental work, containing the list of manuscripts, is now before us, and an examination of the volume confirms fully the estimate which Mr. Pollard has put upon it. The poems which are here registered fall within the chronological limits of 1200 and 1500, and the list is as exhaustive as the compiler has been able to make it for the three centuries concerned, for he has ransacked private collections as well as the great public libraries in London, Oxford, Cambridge, and elsewhere. In restricting himself to religious and didactic verse he was determined by the consideration that the secular verse had already been dealt with in a more or less thorough manner in the printed editions of such works. This restriction results in the exclusion of the following classes of poems from the list: (1) Chronicle histories and political pieces; (2) romances; (3) secular lyrics; (4) charms; (5) alchemical poems; (6) dramatic texts. With these exceptions we have here a virtually complete record of all the manuscript materials of Middle English poetry. The second part of the work, as stated in the "Foreword," will embrace an alphabetical index of first lines, with citation under each entry of all manuscripts containing the piece in question and with references to printed texts in the case of those which have already been published—also an index of subjects and titles. The present volume constitutes one of

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the finest contributions to the study of the Middle Ages which American scholarship has made, and Professor Brown's colleagues on both sides of the ocean will look forward with keen interest to the completion of his labors.

IN the latest issue of the Papers of the Bibliographical Society of America (Vol. X, No. 3), Mr. H. H. B. Meyer discusses, in a telling manner, "Bibliography in Relation to Business and the Affairs of Life," and Dr. Arnold C. Klebs writes with considerable particularity on "Desiderata in the Cataloguing of Incunabula"—not an overworked field. The contribution, however, which will appeal as much to the bibliophile as to the professional bibliographer is Mr. George Watson Cole's "Bibliographical Problems, with a Few Solutions." The history of old and rare books, their peculiarities and distinguishing marks, are subjects of interest if one has been properly reared. And no one in this country can write about them with greater authority than Mr. Cole. Nor does this mean that he deals altogether with what the "practical bibliographer" sometimes patronizingly terms "interesting trifles," for he is also rich in practical suggestions, which are made with much learning and charm of phrase.

"THE Development of the *Tatler*, Particularly in Regard to News," reprinted from the Publications of the Modern Language Association of America (Vol. XXXI, No. 4), is a good example of Prof. C. N. Greenough's thorough methods. A deal of research went into the preparation of this essay. It is shown that news in the *Tatler* fell off almost from the first, and more rapidly after the first fifty numbers. After No. 100 it appeared only six times. Addison, whose influence on Steele was marked, was undoubtedly one of the causes of this decline. He had small respect for the news-writers as a class, and his interest in this feature of the paper was of the slightest. Steele appears to have been won over to his friend's view, although, when the *Tatler* was started, his experience as a writer had been that of a newspaper man. An increase in the number of advertisements further influenced the falling off of news. "Probably more important than any of these causes, however," writes Professor Greenough, "is the fact that the *Tatler*, begun as a miscellany, presently came to consist of single, unified essays." A carefully prepared table giving an analysis of the paper's contents by numbers is included, also a "diagram showing the decline of news in relation to the increase in advertising matter and the growth of the single essay."

THE trustees of the Boston Athenæum have added to their valuable bibliographical series "Confederate Literature. A List of Books and Newspapers, Maps, Music and Miscellaneous Matter Printed in the South During the Confederacy," etc. The volume, which cannot but be of much use to historians and to students of Southern literature, to say nothing of librarians, bibliographers, and collectors, has been prepared by C. N. Baxter and J. M. Dearborn, and is furnished with an introduction by James Ford Rhodes. The collection, which is remarkable in all respects and impressively rich in public documents and in representative newspapers, was begun with funds expended in Richmond soon after its capture. This prescience on the part of the Committee on the Library would be sufficiently notable in itself; but one is glad to be able to add, on the strength of Mr. Rhodes's authority, that the committeeman who made the first purchases was no less a person than Francis Parkman. It is also due to the memory of William F. Poole to emphasize, as Mr. Rhodes does, the part played by the great librarian in developing what Parkman began. To single out interesting items would be futile, but the present writer may be pardoned for saying that he wishes he, too, owned a copy of Bingham's edition of "Cæsar's Commentaries on the Gallic War," issued at Greensboro, N. C., in 1864. A classical item is not so surprising, however, as books on Joan of Arc—by John Fentonhill, Richmond, 1864—and on Bertrand du Guesclin—by D. F. Jamison, Charleston, 1864. Collectors of Simms, of whom there are a few, may well envy the Athenæum its copy of that writer's very rare "Sack and Destruction of the City of Columbia, S. C.," 1865. These and scores upon scores of other books and pamphlets fully justify all Mr. Rhodes has to say about the value and the sufficiency of the Athenæum's collection for most of the purposes of the historian. Yet we must wish he had had less to say about the type of student he denominates "the source-fiend." When students of the manuscript sources are foolish, they cannot be reclaimed from their folly—who ever cured a fool?—even by Mr. Rhodes; and they are not always foolish.

WE heartily commend the Committee of Management of the John Carter Brown Library for the brevity of their annual reports. That for the year 1915-1916 occupies but fifteen well-printed pages, issued from the Merrymount Press. The year's acquisitions, although in some respects notable, were not such as to challenge particular attention. Several rare maps were added to the geographical section, including H. Iaillot's "Le Canada ou Partie de la Nouvelle France," Paris, 1696, and "A new Map of New England. New York. New Iarsey. Pensilvania. Maryland. and Virginia," by Philip Lea and probably published about 1692. The last-named item is of more than common interest, "since it gives the early Indian names of certain localities, as, for instance, Wabaquaset, now Woodstock, Connecticut; and since from it Cotton Mather manifestly derived the representation of the whole southern part of New England as it appears in the map prepared for his *Magnalia Christi Americana* of 1702." Five extremely rare Swedish tracts, relating principally to settlements in Pennsylvania, were added to the Scandinavian collection, and the fine set of De Bry's "Voyages" was completed by the purchase of missing parts. An item that should pique the curiosity of bibliographers—and one apparently unnoticed by them—is a "Relation d'un grand combat donné dans la nouvelle France entre les troupes du Roy et les Iroquois" (1688?). There is no copy of this work in either the Bibliothèque Nationale or the British Museum. In 1853 John Carter Brown placed an order for Dr. John Brickell's "Natural History of North-Carolina," Dublin, 1743, but the volume was not put upon the Library's shelves until sixty-three years later. This, however, does not properly indicate the book's rarity; a goodly number of copies could have been obtained in far less time. The book was reprinted a few years ago by the State of North Carolina. Following its usual practice, the John Carter Brown Library was generously helpful during the year to scholars engaged in research work.

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PALÆOGRAPHERS and students of Anglo-Saxon origins will be greatly interested in the photographic reproduction in "Early Worcester MSS. Fragments of Four Books and a Charter of the Eighth Century Belonging to Worcester Cathedral," edited by Cuthbert Hamilton Turner (Oxford University Press; 38s. net). This volume of five fragmentary manuscripts is written within the eighth century and preserved in the Library of Worcester Cathedral. Of these five treasures from antiquity, three have remained for centuries pasted in the bindings of books in the Worcester Library (Worcester MSS. F. 93, F. 30, and F. 193, respectively), from which they have recently been recovered. These are: (1) three leaves of a copy of the Vulgate text of the Gospels (Matt. 28 : 5-20, Capitula in Marcum, Mark 10 : 26-42); (2) four leaves of Jerome's Commentary on Matthew; (3) six leaves of Gregory's "De Cura Pastorali" (Lib. III, capp. 27, 28). (1) and (3) are written in the well-known semi-uncial "insular" hand and afford beautiful examples of Anglo-Saxon calligraphy in its best period. (2), though less pleasing to the eye, has even greater textual importance. In the first place, it was written in Spain or the south of France, and is the only known instance of a Spanish manuscript which found its way to Saxon England. Again, being written in the earlier half of the eighth century, it becomes a welcome addition to the extremely small group of pre-Carolingian MSS. of Jerome's Commentary, and affords valuable assistance in correcting the readings of the edition by Villarsi. The fourth fragment consists of two leaves from Paterius's selections from Gregory ("De Expositione Veteris ac Novi Testamenti," Lib. I super Genesim, capp. 25, 26). Though, like the others, it is the work of an English scribe of the eighth century, this fragment presents an interesting contrast palæographically, being written in the Italian uncial hand. The last of the Worcester MSS. included in this volume is not a fragment, but an original charter dated 770, by which Uhtred, "regulus," of the Hwiccas, grants certain land to Æthelmund his thane, with a proviso for its eventual reversion to the Church of Worcester. This is the only original charter dating from the Anglo-Saxon period which is now preserved at Worcester, though by some chance this document is not included in the Cartulary of the Worcester Church drawn up by the monk Hemming towards the end of the eleventh century.

BESIDES providing the reader with the scholarly apparatus necessary for the study of these manuscripts, the editor adds four valuable appendices on matters relating to the antiquities of the Worcester Church. The first of these is devoted to the "Bible of Offa," and presents interesting evidence in support of the tradition that a finely executed Bible was presented to the Church of Worcester by Offa, King of Mercia. In Appendix II one finds the letter of Senatus, Prior of Worcester, on the Eusedian Canons, here printed from MS. Bodley 633, with collation of three other manuscripts. This is the first time that the complete text of this letter has been printed. Appendix III contains a useful discussion of the list of the monks of Worcester preserved in the Durham "Liber Vitæ." In Mr. Turner's opinion we have in the "Liber Vitæ" the names of sixty Worcester monks. Appendix IV—in many respects the most important—consists of a list of Worcester MSS. now in other libraries. It is thus that twentieth-century scholarship labors to repair as far as possible the confusion wrought by the pillagers of learning in the sixteenth century. Nineteen Anglo-Saxon and fifty-two Latin manuscripts are here identified—a few somewhat doubtfully—as having belonged orginally to Worcester Cathedral. Of the Anglo-Saxon manuscripts by far the most important is the famous Vercelli Codex. Mr. Turner admits this manuscript to his list, though with some hesitation, on the authority of Max Förster (Morsbach's *Studien zur engl. Philol.*, Heft L., pp. 32-34), whose conclusion is based upon linguistic grounds, "Though the reasons he gives," writes Mr. Turner, "have not much force, it is not unlikely that his conclusion may turn out to be justified on other grounds." That linguistic evidence should fail to inspire confidence in a scholar who elsewhere confesses ignorance of the Anglo-Saxon tongue is not surprising, though this will hardly weigh against the opinion expressed by Förster. It is singular, however, that in speculating as to the way in which an Anglo-Saxon manuscript could have been carried to Vercelli, Mr. Turner reverts to the old theory of the Anglo-Saxon pilgrim, without mentioning either Cook's Cardinal Guala hypothesis or Förster's suggestion that the Vercelli Book travelled by way of Fulda and Würzburg. In conclusion, one may note that in its typography and press work this volume fully maintains the best traditions of the Oxford University Press.

TEXTS

A GENEROUS selection from the traditional English and Scottish ballads is combined in "A Book of Ballads, Old and New," edited by Prof. Guido H. Stempel (Holt; 60 cents), with some cowboy ballads and ballads of a literary sort. The contrasts are instructive and they are skilfully brought out in the notes. The introduction treats vexed questions of origins fairly and clearly. It strikes us as distinctly the best introduction to the subject we have seen.

FRENCH

PROFS. R. E. HOUSE and E. B. Babcock have edited three stories by Theuriet ("Trois Contes de Theuriet"; Holt; 45 cents). "Le Conte des Trois Mages" is an effective variant of one of Grimm's tales. "Lilia," with its *motif* of the love of a mortal for a water-fairy, recalls Fouqué's "Undine"; but both style and treatment would seem to make this story but indifferently suited to classroom purposes. The choice, however, of "Frida" for the last, and much the longest, selection is in every way a happy one. This charming story, the foundation for which is an episode of the author's childhood, should prove a genuine "find" for teachers of French. With a view to encourage the teacher to use French extensively in the classroom, both notes and vocabulary are in French; but where the French equivalents have seemed to the editors unlikely to convey the full meaning to the student, the English words have been added in brackets. A trial of the book may suggest additions to the list of these English equivalents. For example, for *lisse* the vocabulary gives *uni et poli;* to the majority of students, who grasp at the most obvious meanings, these words signify "united and polite."

TO Heath's Modern Languages series has been added an all-French "Grammaire Élémentaire" (60 cents), by Miss Emma C. Armand. In this direct-method handbook

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the simplest notions of grammar are dealt with in twenty-nine lessons. There is an appendix containing verb-paradigms and vocabularies.

ITALIAN

AS regards the proper grouping of grammatical material there is bound to be a wide difference of opinion. The thirty-two-page introduction to Prof. Ruth S. Phelps's "Italian Grammar" (Ginn; $1.20), for example, seems overweighted with material which would perhaps have found a more appropriate place in an appendix. Of the thirty-nine lessons, many are obviously too long to be gone over thoroughly in an hour. But the book, as a whole, is to be welcomed as a painstaking and comprehensive piece of work.

SPANISH

ONE would suspect from the title that "First Spanish Course" (Heath; $1.25 net), by Hills and Ford, was a more elementary treatise than "A Spanish Grammar," a work by the same authors, first published in 1904. The contrary is true. A few years ago only a single semester was devoted to the rudiments of Spanish grammar in most of our universities. Now that the subject is amply provided for in the curriculum, fuller presentations of the subject meet with favor. The "First Spanish Course" is by no means a new edition of "A Spanish Grammar." It is an entirely new work. It differs from its predecessor in extent, arrangement, and exercises. Much more attention has been paid to pedagogy. The essential and regular are introduced early; the less important and the exceptional later. There are frequent conversation exercises, each of the fifty lessons having this feature. No use is made of phonetic transcription, and the authors wisely entrust to the teacher the larger share of the responsibility for describing the various Spanish sounds. Some may question the advisability of reverting to the old nomenclature of genitive, dative, and accusative, a practice strongly condemned by Bello and misleading in the case of an uninflected language like Spanish. Professors Hills and Ford have produced an admirable grammar, certain to meet with favor.

PROFESSOR SCHEVILL'S "First Reader in Spanish" (Ginn; 64 cents) aims to supply the greatest possible variety of material. The book contains proverbs, fairy tales, folk-lore, short poems, history, and even bits of serious literature. The notes are simple and unpedantic. There are many beautiful pen-and-ink drawings, admirable for their local color.

HARRISON'S "Intermediate Spanish Reader" (Ginn; 72 cents) supplements Professor Schevill's introductory reader in the same series. Naturally, the selections are harder and of greater literary value. There are conversation exercises based upon the passages read.

WARSHAW'S "Spanish-American Composition Book" (Holt; 90 cents net) combines translation, composition, and conversation. Each of the thirty lessons contains a passage of Spanish prose designed to illustrate some phase of South American life. There follow two passages of English to be turned into Castilian, and Spanish questions designed to serve as a basis for conversation.

JACINTO BENEVENTE is the central figure among contemporary Spanish dramatists, the continuator of Galdós and Echegaray. Like Galdós, he is interested in social reform, but presents his message with a delicate irony of which that ponderous declaimer is incapable. And if he is less of a stage technician, in the narrow sense, than Echegaray, he interests by his very departure from theatrical convention. In his lightness of touch he is akin rather to Bretón de los Herreros than to either of his more immediate predecessors. His range is surprisingly great. He has attempted nearly every kind of play with scarcely a failure to mark his course. Like most Spanish writers, he is prolific; but, unlike most, rapid writing has not led him to compromise with his artistic ideals. On the contrary, his art has shown consistent development. He is one of the leading representatives of "the generation of 1898," that group of writers so earnestly striving for a renovated Spain and a renewed art. To effect this purpose, preaching is necessary. But preaching is bad art, and Benevente, like Shaw, substitutes ironic mockery for homilies. He is chiefly known as the satirist of modern social conditions in Spain. The English reader now has the opportunity to form acquaintance with four of Benevente's plays, thanks to Mr. J. G. Underhill's excellent rendering of them (Scribner; $1.50 net). The plays chosen are not the best known. But they are well selected to show the author's wide range. They are all recent and illustrative of Benevente's latest manner. The first, "His Widow's Husband," is a farcical depiction of social and political life in a provincial town. "The Bonds of Interest" is an ingenious, modern adaptation of the old Italian Comedy of Masks. Crispin, Harlequin, Columbine, and Pantaloon discourse airily on important themes. It is a splendid example of Benevente's light handling of the serious. "The Evil Doers of Good" flagellates the busybodies of a small village, who, under the guise of philanthropy, work harm with their meddlesome interference in the affairs of others. One sees that the *beata*, Spain's female hypocrite, is as much in evidence as she was in the days of Lope and Tirso. "La Malquerida" is not a thesis-drama like the rest, but a peasant play after the manner of Guimerá; yet this tragedy in the lives of simple folk far transcends in power anything that the Catalonian dramatist has given us. The last act with its horror heaped upon horror, surprise following surprise, should be a sufficient answer to those who say that Benevente possesses no technique. The four plays run the gamut of farce, comedy, tragi-comedy, and tragedy. It is exceptionally difficult to render into English an author so subtle as Benevente, one whose effects depend so much upon lightness. Imagine Shaw in German! But Mr. Underhill has been more than successful. One detects no trace of foreign idiom in his English. His biography of Benevente and critical estimate of that writer's work is the best yet attempted in English.

GERMAN

HEYSE'S admirable little story, "L'Arrabbiata," is edited with biographical sketch, notes, exercises, and vocabulary by Prof. Lawrence A. McLouth and Mr. Kurt E. Richter (Holt; 40 cents). The workmanship has apparently been careful. There are a few pictures to enliven the text.

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STORM'S "In St. Jürgen" is proving a close second in popularity to his "Immensee." A new edition by Prof. Otto Heller (Holt; 45 cents) is distinguished by a particularly good introductory analysis of Storm's works. The rest of the editorial material consists of notes, vocabulary, questions, and exercises in paraphrasing.

THE popular German novelist, Rudolf Herzog, is made accessible to American students by the publication of his story, "Die Burgkinder," abridged and edited by Prof. O. G. Boetzkes, of the University of Wisconsin (Heath; 65 cents). This optimistic, mildly didactic novel is by no means equal to the author's masterpiece, "Die Wiskottens," but it is eminently readable, and the abridgment has not seriously affected the continuity of the story. The scene is in Herzog's favorite Rhineland during the Napoleonic period. The notes are chiefly devoted to the explanation of historical and geographical references. The mistake of making "la Provence" equivalent to "the provinces" occurs on page 185. The vocabulary appears adequate.

RUSSIAN

A PRIMARY need for teachers of Russian is a series of well-edited, accented texts, for the use of second-year classes. Hence one welcomes the appearance of Tolstoy's "Sevastopol," edited with notes and vocabulary by A. P. Goudy and E. Bullough (Putnam; $1.25 net), and at the same time somewhat regrets the choice of text made by the editors. The vocabulary of "Sevastopol" is full of military terms that no ordinary student will ever meet again, and the style presents more than the average number of perplexing popular idioms: for an elementary text various other of Tolstoy's shorter works would have been preferable. The editing is in general competent, but shows traces of undue haste; there are long but incomplete lists of "errata" and "addenda et corrigenda." The book as a whole is a movement in the right direction and will be of genuine service.

"RUSSIAN Composition," by J. Solomonoff (Dutton; $1.25 net), cannot be commended. The writer mingles explanations of the most simple matters with silence as to some that are not so simple. In the sixth lesson, for example, he dutifully gives the Russian words for *never* and *all*, but omits that for *four*, and is silent as to the cases used after numerals. The little book could not be used by itself; if used with another manual, much of its material would be superfluous.

WHEN a book represents a distinct advance over any previous work of similar character, it is not altogether pleasant to point out its weaker sides. This is emphatically true of "A New Pocket Dictionary of the English and Russian Languages," compiled from the best authorities by J. H. Freese (Dutton; 2 vols.; each $2 net). This is the first work of the sort made by a speaker of English and addressed primarily to the needs of English students. The general arrangement of the definitions is admirable, and the typography, except that some of the pages are rather blurred, is excellent. The compiler is particularly careful in his treatment of the aspects of the verb, and considerately gives in alphabetical order inflected forms in cases where a beginner might be at a loss to find the corresponding infinitive. In the Russian-English part he gives approximate phonetic transcriptions, which, despite some shortcomings, will be useful. The compiler has hit on the praiseworthy plan of saving space by omitting "many easily recognizable foreign words." One wonders, then, why he has included such words as *aerometr*, *barometr*, *teleskop*, and *telefon*. He has also saved space by placing many derivatives under the primary word, instead of in alphabetic order. This principle he may have carried too far in some cases; a beginner might look in vain for *moryak* (seaman), which is found under *more* (sea). Owing to an evident ignorance of phonetics, Mr. Freese's treatment of pronunciation is most unsatisfactory. The time is past for such statements as that the Russian soft sign, "like the soft vowels, gives a preceding consonant a soft, liquid sound, as if a rapidly pronounced *y* or *i* were combined with it." A Russian palatalized *b*, *t*, or *l* is no more liquid than the corresponding unpalatalized sound. The symbol *ü* is a most misleading transliteration for the Russian vowel usually rendered by *y*. The vowel sound in *zhizn'* is not the same in pronunciation as that in *zhid*. The Russian *k* does not correspond to that in English *cat*, *come*, but to that in *key*. These are mere samples of a thoroughly unscientific treatment of the whole topic. And yet the book as a whole deserves an enthusiastic and grateful reception from the growing number of students and teachers of Russian.

BOOKS by amateurs in any subject are not likely to be marked by accuracy, proportion, or solid judgment, but they often express points of view and shrewd comments on details for which specialists may be grateful. All this is true of "The Russians and Their Language" (Mitchell Kennerley; $2.50 net), by Madame N. Jarintzov, a book written, to quote the author's own words, "just as it came —without keeping to any theory or system—myself frequently enjoying the unexpected revelations, as the details and varieties of examples came swarming to my mind." The general effect is that of a bright woman's monologue over the teacups. The writer has no knowledge of phonetics, so that her chatter about Russian pronunciation and transliteration is of the sort that darkens counsel. Most amusing is her treatment of Church Slavonic as an early form of Russian, when it is really the Bulgarian language of the ninth century, somewhat corrupted through use by Russians, and her statement: "Slavonic is also free of auxiliary verbs, as there exists [*sic*] the same three tenses as in Russian, and the only grammatical difference is that the verb 'to be' is used in the Slavonic in its present tense" (p. 112). On the other hand, the book may be heartily commended to all students of the Russian language, and even to readers of Russian novels who know nothing of that language, for its discussion of some characteristic differences between English and Russian linguistic psychology. Such are her remarks on "tenderness and love winding their way throughout the language" owing especially to the use of diminutives, on "n'ichevò" (nothing), on "bàt'ushka" (little father), and on "the all-powerful syllables of nuances." Herein the volume is of most valuable and stimulating assistance to our comprehension of the social habits and of the ways of thought of the Russian people.

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THERE is a fine old-fashioned sound to the title-page of "Volper's Russian Accidence in Tables, giving all the Russian declensions of nouns, adjectives, numerals, and pronouns; conjugations of verbs; formation of nouns, adjectives, numerals, and the aspects of verbs: to which is appended a chapter on the formation of augmentatives, diminutives, etc. Adapted for English students, and provided with a full index and grammatical glossary by Mark Sieff" (Dutton; $1.50 net). The book is apparently an electrotyped reproduction of a manual used widely in the schools "of those provinces in Russia where the language of the native population is non-Russian"; the adaptation, aside from the glossary and the index, on which the whole value of the book depends, consists in the insertion of English captions in convenient blank spaces of the original. The work should be of great value to teachers of Russian and to advanced Russian students, since, through its aid, the irregularities of Russian inflection, particularly in the puzzling shift of the accent, may be readily traced. Such details are beyond the scope of ordinary grammars like that of Forbes.

THE "Third Russian Book" in the series prepared by Mr. Nevill Forbes (Oxford University Press; $1 net) is a reader consisting of selections from Aksakov, Grigorovich, Herzen, and Saltykov, provided with notes and vocabulary. The notes are good, though somewhat needlessly full on the simpler passages and scanty on those more difficult; the vocabulary is adequate and carefully prepared. The weak point of the volume is in the choice of material. Passages for translation from Russian, as from other languages, should be complete in themselves; and they should either give useful information about things Russian—history, geography, manners and customs, literature and art—or else they should be of striking literary merit. Now, no one of the authors represented in Mr. Forbes's book is of the very first rank, and of his five selections two are the opening chapters of novels. All five give interesting glimpses of Russian character and manners, but little concrete, positive information. Thus the little volume consists of second-rate material, competently edited, though not without minor flaws; it is a model of neat, careful printing.

History

THE second revised edition of Philip Van Ness Myers's "Ancient History" (Ginn; $1.50) shows how ineradicable is the defect that exists in an historical work when the author balances authorities instead of evidence. Notwithstanding every effort at emendment, one gets in reading it a general feeling of insecurity as to facts and of inconsistency as to thought. When competition was less keen, this debility of scholarship was offset by Myers's great skill in textbook making. Now, however, that specialists in ancient history, like Botsford, Goodspeed, Westermann, and Breasted, with a knack for writing textbooks, have entered the lists, it is only just that the sophistical character of Myers's work should be emphasized.

MR. C. E. ROBINSON, in "The Days of Alcibiades" (Longman, Green; $1.50 net), gilds the pill of Greek antiquities more attractively, we think, than does Bekker's "Charikles" or the "Alkibiades" of C. H. Bromley. Out of actual or possible scenes from the life of Alcibiades he has composed a sequence of readable chapters that covers the chief topics of Athenian private and public life strung on a thread of story that adds interest without distracting the reader's attention or teasing him with doubts as to where Wahrheit ends and *Dichtung* begins. Mr. Robinson evidently knows and has excerpted his authors from Aristophanes to Lucian. He is acquainted with the controversies of archæologists, which he wisely eschews, and is able to interpret ancient Greece in the light of reminiscences of his travels in the Greece of to-day. The colloquial intimacy of some of the soliloquies and dialogues smacks something too much of the style of the fluent barber in "Romola" or of the conscious picturesqueness of Gomperz's chapter on the trial of Socrates. But many of the descriptions are admirably clear and vivid. They include a visit to a farm on the Kephissia road, a consultation of the oracle at Delphi, Phormio's naval victory over the superior Spartan fleet, the battle of Delion, the Eleusinian mysteries, the dinner in the house of Pulytion where Alcibiades parodied the mysteries, scenes in the Agora, a funeral, a performance of tragedies at the theatre, the meeting of the assembly in which Alcibiades tricked the Spartan envoys, a wedding, the Panathenaia, the departure of the Sicilian expedition from the Peiræus, the jury trial of the younger Alcibiades, the death of Alcibiades. The illustrations based on the author's sketches, whatever their artistic merits, are well adapted to the purpose of visualizing and schematizing precisely the information that the reader needs and the student may remember. They cannot, of course, take the place of the two-hundred and sixty-three authentic reproductions from the monuments in Professor Gulick's "Greek Antiquities." It is as the author says not a handbook or a work of reference. But it is one of the best companions to the reading of the Greek classics that we have met in many a day.

IT brings Greece very near to the modern schoolboy. Perhaps too near. It makes Greek life "seem real." But there is more than one reality. And the truth, the reality which eludes a generation that assimilates Hellenism through handbooks of antiquities and Cook's tours in Greece, is the essential quality of Greek poetry and art. Mr. Robinson thinks that the "racy intonation" of the modern Greek will help us to appreciate the difference between Homer read and Homer recited as a living thing. His conception of "Homer recited" is this:

> I prithee drink, Sir Cyclops,
> Of man's meat thy wame is full.
> But 'twere good to see what this liquor may be
> Doth line our good ship's hull.

Education, said Plato, is learning to take pleasure and pain in the right things. To feel a pain rightly proportional to the atrocity of this ballad an undergraduate would need to study the real Homer a long time. He could cram in a week as much of Greek *realien* as his professor found it profitable to keep mobilized in conscious memory.

GAIUS VERRES, Roman legate, quæstor, prætor, and pro-prætor, has been immortalized by Cicero. In these days when the conscience of the world is troubled by a fresh exhibition of the wantonness of power, the story of the atrocious official whose crimes a change of government in Rome enabled Cicero to expose may well command the at-

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tention of students, especially of those whose indignation at the wrongs of Belgium and France needs the confirmation of history. This story, analyzed and stripped of its rhetorical embellishments, Dr. Frank Hewitt Cowles retells with all its damning incidents in the twentieth number of the Cornell Studies in Classical Philology ("Gaius Verres, an Historical Study" (Longmans, Green & Co.). It is the public career of a bad man, intoxicated with a sense of national, class, and personal irresponsibility, hard though effeminate, vicious though cultured. To Verres office was but an opportunity for plunder. He lusted with the same lust for beautiful women and *objets d'art*. Blind in his anger when thwarted, merciless alike in committing crime and concealing it, and served by merciless agents, thirsty always for gold—the procurer of pleasures and the purchaser of immunity—he fell with his mistresses and minions upon unlucky Sicily and pillaged it from Tauromenium to Lilybæum for three longs years (73-71 B. C.). There is not much that is new in Dr. Cowles's treatment of this instructive theme, unless it be a somewhat sophomoric comparison of Verres and his accuser as *connoisseurs*. An unhappy Preface, in the first two paragraphs of which appear as many faulty sentences, augurs ill for the author's style, and a certain lack of discrimination in the Bibliography casts a suspicion on the author's general training in Roman history; but an attentive reading of the Text has not confirmed the misgivings thereby raised. The book is good beginners' work.

E. S. BOUCHIER'S "Spain Under the Roman Empire," and "Syria as a Roman Province," have been followed by a study of "Sardinia in Ancient Times" (Longmans, Green; $1.75 net), a volume of about two hundred pages summing up the fragmentary evidence available from ancient writers and modern archæological research. One wonders how much of the baleful tint that colors the whole history of the island has been due to the malaria disseminating *Anopheles claviger*, which the swamps of all its leveller portions have engendered from prehistoric times. The unhealthfulness of its lower stretches, and the untamable ruggedness of its mountain heights, form a combination with which the softening influences of civilization and progress have never yet been able satisfactorily to deal. Giulio Bechi's "Caccia Grossa," or "Scenes and Characters of Sardinian Banditry," published in 1900, is probably about the truest picture of Sardinian life in recent times, outside a few of the more important towns. The fact is sufficiently attested, however, that this island of a little over 9,000 square miles, with all the swamps of its lowlands and bare granite of its mountains, did figure for a considerable period as one of the really important sources of grain supply for Rome, and hence must have had a numerous and widely distributed rural population above the level of banditry. Mr. Bouchier admits the insufficiency of materials, so far, for any complete history, but he does succeed in giving a fairly connected idea of the fortunes of the island and its people in rough outline, from the period of Carthaginian supremacy down into the Middle Ages, with a brief presentation of the results of archæological study into its prehistoric occupation.

MR. HUTTON WEBSTER'S "Early European History" (Heath; $1.60) is intended for high schools which do not care to give a whole year to ancient history alone, but which prefer, in accordance with the recent recommendations of some educational bodies, to cover the general field of all history in a two years' course. The first year would describe ancient and Oriental civilization and European history, including the history of England and of the discovery of America, down to about 1700 A. D. The second-year course would include European and American history since 1700. In this volume, designed for the first-year course, Mr. Webster has kept to the same high level of excellence which he set for himself four years ago in his "Ancient History." In his new book he has so successfully condensed into about 300 pages what occupied twice the space in the earlier volume that he has retained the essentials about ancient history, and yet there is no objectionable evidence of a "boiling-down" process. In fact, he has even added a number of maps and illustrations. In the second part of his book he describes with admirable clearness, simplicity, and interest the main points in European history and civilization from Charlemagne to Louis XIV. He rightly selects for emphasis the points which have turned out to be of most significance for the pupil of today. He has unusually good chapters on the rise and spread of Islam, on the Mongols and the Turks, on the formation of national languages and literatures, and on early geographical discovery and colonization. Narrative political history and military history are conceded only a minimum of space. The only unsatisfactory sections are those on Feudalism and Germanic law. The relatively long chapter on mediæval towns, with its detailed account of guilds, trade-leagues, and money-lending, is exceedingly well done, but, taken with his very scant treatment of the mediæval manor, is likely to lead the pupil to fail to realize that, even in the largest cities of the Middle Ages, the population was still predominantly what we should call agricultural and rural. The maps and illustrations are numerous and well-chosen. Good study questions at the end of each chapter are ingeniously designed to afford the basis of what ought to be, in the hands of a good teacher, lively and valuable classroom discussions; for these questions cannot be answered by a mere recital of the text; they require thought and give training in judgment and in making comparisons. Mr. Webster is generally so accurate that it is worth while to mention the few points noted for correction. It is misleading to imply (pp. 315, 525) that the Germans under Henry the Fowler permanently conquered Brandenburg from the Slavs; this did not take place until more than two centuries later under Albert the Bear. Instead of saying (p. 555) that popular Latin in France gave rise to "two quite independent languages," it would have been more correct to say "to two groups of language which insensibly shade into one another." In the map, p. 634, Switzerland, Geneva, and Lyons are badly misplaced. For Frotheringay (map, p. 634) read Fotheringhay; for Pomerlia (map, p. 462) read Pomerelia; and for Osterreich (p. 522) read Oesterreich.

THERE is still such a paucity of thoroughly well-informed and well-balanced accounts of modern Russia that one welcomes heartily Alexander Kornilov's "Modern Russian History," two volumes, translated by A. S. Kaun (Knopf; $5 net). The author is a professor at the Polytechnicum of Peter the Great in Petrograd, and is, like Professor Miliukov, radical-liberal in his attitude. After an excellent opening sketch of Russian development before

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Catherine the Great, in which he mainly follows Kluchevsky's masterly torso, his two volumes deal mainly with the past one hundred and fifty years, during which Russia has played an increasingly important part in European politics. It is not, however, so much of Russia's international position that he writes, as of her internal evolution. Nowhere in English, for instance, so far as we know, can one find so clear, simple, and yet somewhat philosophic an account of the growth of liberalism and democracy in the great Slav empire. Professor Kornilov is one of the first to interpret adequately the influence of the Russian publicists and the Russian newspaper press in the formation of parties and policies. At the same time, he estimates interestingly the personal character of the various Czars, and shows to what a great extent in an autocracy like Russia the personal equation of the ruler has been a decisive factor in historical development. He makes clear, for instance, to what an extraordinary degree Catherine II took control over the life and education of her grandson, later Alexander I, and gave to him that liberal and Francophil tendency which distinguished the first part of his reign. Quite new, too, is his picture of the reactionary character of the early life of Alexander II, who is usually thought of as a liberal at first and lauded as the "Czar Liberator." Professor Kornilov has also a fairly good ethnological account of the various tribes and nationalities which make up the Russian state and which have become more or less Russified. As to the effect of external war upon internal development, it is worth noting at the present moment that the author thinks that the disastrous Crimean war was much less a factor in internal reform than is usually supposed. With the Crimean war, the Russo-Japanese war, and the great war before us, each followed by great internal reform movements and domestic upheavals, we are in danger of becoming too glib in our generalizations that every foreign war is the sole *fons et origo* of subsequent internal socio-political disturbances. Professor Kornilov's volumes were originally delivered as lectures, and in the original Russian preserve much of the directness and charm of the lecture form. But unfortunately the extreme gaucherie of the translator has filled the pages with hideous Teutonisms and some almost unintelligible phrases.

IN "Our Ancestors in Europe" (Silver, Burdett; 76 cents)—a book designed to furnish pupils in the sixth grade with a background for their imminent study of American history—the author, Miss Jennie Hall, of the Parker School in Chicago, has shown considerable skill both in selecting the incidents and figures on which to dwell and in making the narrative simple without making it dull or childish. We doubt whether the public realizes how much clear thinking and skilful craftsmanship go into the making of a good textbook for children such as this is.

Government and Economics

MUCH has been written concerning the experiment of Manitoba in the public ownership of telephones, but Prof. James Mavor's "Government Telephones" (Moffat, Yard; $1 net) is the most searching and complete analysis of the results. Professor Mavor finds that the management of the telephone system—both technical and financial—has been completely subordinated to political purposes. The story is told in great detail and with numerous references to official documents. The confidence of the reader in the findings would be greater if it were not evident from several passages that the author on general principles is completely opposed to Government conduct of industries, and that he regards the results of the Manitoba experiment simply as an illustration of the inevitable result of all such experiments.

THE work of the various States in highway building has taken on new interest and importance since the passage in 1916 of the act for Federal assistance in the construction and maintenance of post-roads. The "Good Roads Year Book" for 1917 of the American Highway Association (Washington, D. C.) carefully summarizes, as usual, the progress of the last year in the improvement of roads in the commonwealths, our insular possessions, and Alaska. A new departure is to be found in two hundred pages devoted to papers upon those simple and non-technical features of highway construction and maintenance which a commissioner entrusted with the expenditure of road funds should know. There has been a demand for this from local road officials who have found that most of the treatises on roads are more useful to engineers than to the uninitiated. The American Highway Association has entered upon this work with enthusiasm, enlisting some fifty experts in it. The result is a veritable brief reference-book upon rural road building, applicable to the whole country.

"WORKMEN'S Compensation," by J. E. Rhodes, 2d (Macmillan; $1.50), sets forth in a style which can be easily understood by any intelligent reader the development, in this country, of the movement for compensating workmen who suffer accident in industry. It describes also the basic principles underlying compensation insurance. Inasmuch as the problems resulting from industrial accidents arose in Europe much earlier than in this country, a summary is presented, at first, of the distinctive features of the English and German methods of handling the question. This is followed by a discussion of the development of the agitation in the United States, covering the first decade of the twentieth century. Several unsuccessful attempts, recited by Mr. Rhodes, were made in certain of our States, before 1910, to follow the lead of practically all other civilized nations by adopting some form of workmen's compensation laws; but it was not until the present decade of the twentieth century that the real movement was successfully inaugurated. It was in 1911 that the first laws to stand the test of constitutionality were passed, and so rapidly has the movement progressed that, at the present time, very few States are without compensation laws. Moreover, the laws are, almost uniformly, in actual and effective operation. The author discusses the nature of these laws, the methods of insuring the compensation obligation imposed by the new legislation, the methods of administering the laws, and certain social aspects of workmen's compensation. In the appendix is found an outline of the history of the movement which resulted in the laws of New York State, the standards for sound workmen's compensation laws recommended by the American Association for Labor Legislation, and a brief digest of the various laws in force in each State at the end of 1916. At the close of each chapter there is a list of references covering the literature upon the main topics discussed, and at the end of the volume

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is a general bibliography of ten pages. The book is a most timely contribution to the literature of workmen's compensation, and will be welcomed by a wide range of readers, including business men, students, and teachers of insurance, and intelligent general readers, as well.

THE greater number of the readers of Prof. John A. Ryan's "Distributive Justice" (Macmillan; $1.50 net) will not find his proposals for changes in the present economic system either new or startling. In the main his views are those held by economists of liberal views. The essential elements of the present system of distribution—private ownership of land and capital—are defended against Single Taxers and Socialists. The chief corrective measures which the author would introduce are unearned increment taxes, progressive income and inheritance taxes, the dissolution of monopolies, the promotion of coöperation, and the establishment of a legal minimum wage. The novel thing about Professor Ryan's book is not, therefore, his programme of reform, which can be found in part or whole in any elementary textbook of political economy, but the unusual method by which he reaches his conclusions. Natural rights, chiefly as set forth by the Christian Fathers, form the base from which the argument proceeds, but there is a large admixture of purely economic considerations, such as the desirability of increasing production and the effect of various measures on the efficiency of labor. The general philosophical basis on which the argument rests would have been much more intelligible, if the author had set forth in a single chapter his entire theory of social justice. As it is, each of the great categories of rent, interest, profits, and wages is dealt with separately, and the principles on which the author reaches his conclusions come to light only incidentally and piecemeal. The book will be useful as a careful résumé of the chief economic reforms which are at present under consideration. As a piece of philosophical inquiry it is curious rather than interesting.

MR. GILBERT HOLLAND MONTAGUE'S "Business Competition and the Law" (Putnam; $1.75 net) and Mr. William S. Stevens's "Unfair Competition" (University of Chicago Press; $1.50 net) deal with the same subject-matter. Both books discuss the various methods of unfair competition and give some attention to the changes made in the law by the Clayton Act and the Federal Trade Commission Act. The two books are intended, however, for different classes of readers. Mr. Montague, who is a lawyer in active practice, has written primarily for the business man. Contrary to the old tradition that the business of a lawyer is to show his client how he can evade the law, Mr. Montague lays stress on the extreme difficulty, if not impossibility, of knowing what is unfair competition. Moreover, it is not only the uncertainty of the law which is to be feared, but also the heavy hand of the Government. To fight is costly, and the prudent course frequently is to agree to a "consent decree," even though the legal question involved may be debatable. Mr. Stevens's book treats the subject primarily from the social point of view. It is not the embarrassing position of the business man which holds his attention, but the interest of society in maintaining freedom of competition. Each of the forms of unfair competition is appraised by this standard. Mr. Stevens inclines to the view that superior efficiency alone does not constitute a sufficient basis for monopoly, for the reason that superior efficiency is rarely continuous for a long period. If future consolidations are prevented and unfair competitive methods are restrained, the régime of competition, in his opinion, will not be overthrown by monopoly. He thus aligns himself with the views so vigorously set forth some years since by Prof. John B. Clark in his "The Control of Trusts."

IN the field of marketing, Paul T. Cherington, of the faculty of the Harvard Graduate School of Business Administration, has prepared an interesting and instructive volume entitled "The Wool Industry" (A. W. Shaw Company). The author lays no claim to having made any substantial contribution to the matters treated by other writers on such subjects as sheep-breeding, wool-growing, the tariff in its relation to these activities, or the technique of textile making. His efforts have been directed, rather, to the study of a relatively new phase of the wool industry, namely, commercial problems—those connected with buying and selling. Accordingly, the volume is a real contribution to a hitherto scanty literature. Some general aspects of the wool industry are disposed of in the introductory chapters, after which the author launches into a treatment of such interesting problems as the mill and selling, the organization and methods of the selling house, the place of the dry-goods jobbing trade in the distribution of wool textiles, the marketing of women's piece goods, particularly as influenced by the factor of style, the ready-to-wear clothing industry as it has affected men's and women's piece goods, and department stores in their relation to the marketing of women's piece goods. The bulk of the data for the volume was gathered before the outbreak of the European war; but its effects on the wool industries and the commerce thereof are considered and summarized as follows: "(1) The present situation makes more conspicuous than ever before the military strategic value of an American wool-growing industry; (2) it emphasizes the desirability from a military standpoint of independence for the United States in its manufacture of woollens and worsteds; (3) it demonstrates our present dependence on Europe for certain parts of our machinery equipment, and on Germany for most of our dyestuffs; (4) it makes clear the desirability and the possibility of developing a larger degree of originality in design among American cloth-manufacturers, and of securing full credit for the originality they already have exhibited." It should be added that, in the year since the final preparation of the manuscript, the activities of American manufacturers and others have resulted in the development of a substantial dyestuffs industry; hence our dependence on foreign dyestuffs becomes, as time goes on, increasingly less.

PRIOR to the war the American industry in dyestuffs existed in little more than name—in some six establishments less than 400 operatives manufactured 3,300 short tons of colors yearly, the manufacturing really consisting in the "assembling" of coal tar intermediates made almost wholly in Europe. Every maker of textiles, chemicals, paper, and paints knows what a marvellous expansion has occurred in the dye-making industry here since Germany's war-lords threw away her foreign market. Dr. Norton, for the Government, puts the annual production at 27,000 short tons, from two-score establishments which are steadily in-

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creasing the variety of their output. By the end of 1917 there will be few, if any, coal-tar intermediates not made on our soil. Some day a full history of the growth of our chemical industries during the war will be written. Meantime, there is much interest in I. F. Stone's "The Aniline Color," a privately printed compilation of addresses and papers by various hands dealing with various aspects of the dye-stuff industry from August 1, 1914 to April 1, 1917. Besides Mr. Stone, men of such familiarity with conditions as Dr. B. C. Hesse, Dr. D. W. Jayne, Dr. W. Beckers, and Dr. Norton, are represented. There is naturally much chaff in the compilation, but it can be blown away to reveal many essential facts in the firm establishment of a great American industry.

THE letters printed in the second volume of "The Commerce of Rhode Island," issued by the Massachusetts Historical Society (seventh series, Vol. X, 70, Boston; published by the Society), are mainly a continuation of those of two of the firms mentioned in the previous volume, Aaron Lopez and the Champlins. They are somewhat less miscellaneous in character than are the earlier letters and make it possible to follow with considerable ease the commercial activities of these two business houses. The period embraced, 1775 to 1798, is one of exceptional interest from the point of view of American commerce, as it includes many disturbing historical events, the Revolutionary War and the settling of the Federal Government, the French Revolution and the European war that followed, and the early phases of the negro uprising in Santo Domingo. Every one of these events had its effect upon American commerce and is referred to in this correspondence as a factor to be reckoned with. Perhaps the most conspicuous feature of the information here furnished is the absence of trade with Great Britain and the extent of the trade with Ireland, France, Denmark, Russia, the Wine Islands, and the French and Dutch West Indies. As is well known, trade with the British West Indies was stopped by Great Britain's own act, but it is generally supposed that commercial connections with the mother country were resumed in full measure immediately after the treaty of peace. It may be that the Champlins found business elsewhere more profitable or it may be that English merchants, as is stated here by one of them, refused to execute orders, knowing the difficulty American merchants "must labour under of making their remittances." The international situation of the United States in 1788 is strikingly shown in a letter from a sea-captain voyaging to India. The captain wrote that the American flag, far from being of any use "as a cover of a free and independent commerce," had to be put aside entirely and the French flag substituted as a special favor and at heavy expense.

THE Columbia University Studies are reaching into many fields, and two recent publications in them are of distinct importance for our knowledge of Mohammedanism. Under the somewhat blind title, "The Origins of the Islamic State" (Longmans, Green; $4 net), Dr. Philip Khuri Hitti gives us the first volume of a translation of al-Baladhuri's "Futuh al-Buldan," "Conquests of the Countries." The author died A. D. 892, and his book is thus one of the oldest of the Arabic histories which have reached us and a primary source. As its style is curt and obscure and the arrangement by no means perspicuous, a good translation will be useful even to the Arabist if only as a clue, and for the historian who ventures the perilous quest of Arabic history without Arabic it will be invaluable. By test here and there this translation has shown itself to be quite accurate. But how could Dr. Hitti, a native Syrian, make a Moslem (p. 384) utter such blasphemy as "May Allah be highly exalted"? Such expressions in a Moslem mouth are not precatory perfects, but declaratory, "Allah *is* highly exalted in and through Himself." On p. 204, note 1, *taghiyah* as used of the Byzantine emperor does not mean simply "tyrant," but a rebellious and impious usurper. It is the word affected by Moslem princes even in treaties with Christians, and De Sacy, in his *Chrestomathie* (Vol. III, pp. 332 ff.), has admirably explained the usage and the attitude behind it. On p. 65 there is an obscure sentence which might better be turned, "and when it [the fit of inspiration] came to him [Mohammed] it was always plain to us"; *i. e.*, we could always distinguish whether he was speaking under inspiration or not. There are some curious parallels to this in the Old Testament. Dr. Hitti has added many parallel historical references and a good index.

THE second of these Studies is also an excellent piece of work, but still more unfortunate in its title. It is "Mohammendan Theories of Finance, with an Introduction to Mohammedan Law and a Bibliography" (Longmans, Green; $4 net), by Dr. Nicolas P. Aghnides. It should be called "The Revenues and Expenditures of the Mohammedan State According to Mohammedan Canon Law," etc. The introductory sketch (pp. 1-156) of the bases and system of Moslem canon law is good, and will be very useful. Yet there are very strange slips in Arabic, some betraying an apparent lack of ease in its use. Thus, *wijdaniyat* (p. 24) is not "ethics" in any ordinary sense of that word, but "matters of immediate experience, spiritual and physical." *Hikayah* (p. 25) when used technically is not "narration," but "verbatim reproduction," and *hijrah* (p. 31) is certainly not "flight." On p. 158 Dr. Aghnides has the same confusion of the precative and declaratory perfects, the two occurring side by side, and on p. 194, "this book is from . . ." instead of "one of." The bibliography is on pp. 157-196, and is based largely on Hajji Khalifa. Thus it includes books of the present existence of which in MS. or print we have no knowledge, and its estimates of value would not always appeal to a western scholar. It is suggestive, but to be used with caution. Last comes the body of the book on pp. 197-535. It is a very full and good discussion of a purely academic subject, derived from the chapters of the canon law on *zakat*, "tithe," and *jihad*, "holy war." It limits itself so carefully to the theorizing of these lawyers that it has basis neither in historical origin nor in the legal practice of any time. Thus Dr. Aghnides gives (p 203) the unhistorical etymology of *zakat* according to these authorities and their unhistorical view (p. 37) as to the conscientious caution of the Companions in transmitting traditions, and he ignores the historical investigations by Becker and others as to the actual facts in the case. This is a perfectly consistent and defensible procedure; but when he fulfils his promise (p. 535) to set forth in a later monograph the relation of all this to reality, historical and legal, his work will be cut out for him. A four-page index is quite inadequate.

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Sociology

TO the Riverside Textbooks in Education series, edited by E. P. Cubberley, Prof. W. R. Smith contributes "An Introduction to Educational Sociology" (Houghton Mifflin; $1.75 net). "In the past," says the author, "our schools have drawn their inspiration more largely from their own traditions than from their social environment," and so "education has been too much of an isolated institution. But in our day social organization has become so complex and democratic that we are perforce growing more interdependent and coöperative. It is therefore necessary to increase the reach and broaden the content of school work." The author has caught the idea that education means the introduction of the young into society's heritage and life; and he rightly regards this as a rather novel view. He has to be elementary because sociologists are untrained in educational theory, educators are untrained in sociology, and undergraduates are untrained in either—so he asserts, and we are not disposed to combat him. And so we have yet another kind of "sociology" set before us. There is naturally nothing very head-racking in such an elementary survey; in fact, there is a succession of commonplaces, as the treatment jogs along through the family, the "play-group," the community, etc. The first impression that emerges is that the author does not know so very much about sociology, at first hand; he is "trying to impress upon college students who are expecting to teach the larger educational point of view that sociology offers to the educator." His sociological bibliography is not very extensive, and what he quotes from it is largely a string of observations made by his authorities. There is no intention of deriding an attempt to throw new light upon the possibilities of education; but when you are applying a rather incidental amount of one science to another, it is a little irritating to devotees of the former to have the results labelled by the name of the former—especially since it is not at all clear in many minds that the latter is a science at all, but perhaps only an art. In a general way this is not an impressive book. It has in it a great deal that is true and useful, and is well written, for the most part. Very likely it will help a number of educators to realize that education is not an isolated institution. But it does not drive compellingly to the point, as such a book must do, even though elementary, if it is going to attract attention to a novel point of view. It is too diffuse and not sufficiently positive. In fact, it is not calculated to arrest the attention; its "message" does not stand forth; the stride is absent which might sweep the uninterested or partly interested on towards conviction. This criticism amounts to what may be thought an excessive demand upon a book of this sort; but the author regards the field to which he introduces us as "important" and "new," and thus challenges high criteria.

PAUL L. VOGT'S "Introduction to Rural Sociology" (Appleton; $2.50 net) is a substantial volume added to the rather copious recent output upon this special type of social science; it aims to "contribute something toward the effort now being made by humanity, particularly in the Western world, to gain control of the conditions of existence in the interest of the common welfare." It is one aspect of the "effort now being made by students of social phenomena to develop a science which will enable human beings to so order their social relationships as to secure a maximum of common welfare with a minimum of waste of social energy through maladjustment of their organized life to community needs." Obviously, the first necessity for adjustment is to know the conditions to which adjustment must be made and to estimate coolly the degree of adequacy of existing instrumentalities developed to this end. Upon these basic issues Dr. Vogt has focussed his attention. It is manifestly impossible to pass in review such sets of facts and figures as he has assembled; but it may be said of them that they furnish an enlightening array of trustworthy information upon the physical setting, the methods of self-maintenance, the health, morality, educational organization, and general social structure of the rural community. There has been some little prejudice against rural sociology, as a sort of unimportant side-issue, in the minds of certain people who have been occupied with questions of sociological theory, or who have become obsessed with the more obvious problem of the crowded city; it seems to be assumed that whatever is of interest in the national life must be in the cities, and that every one who is worth anything wants to shake the dust of the country off his feet as speedily as possible, in order to swell the more sophisticated hordes of the urban region. But "the fact that over half of the population of America lives in communities of less than 2,500 population indicates the significance of the entire problem from the point of view of social life"; and studies like Gillette's and this one of Vogt's clearly indicate to any thinking man that preoccupation with urban conditions to the neglect of rural life represents an unfair and unwise shift of emphasis. We should have been warned ere this, by rising prices of the necessities of life, that human beings, like all other organisms, live, in final analysis, from the soil; and that there is a positive danger in allowing the rural occupations to decline. Of course there will be a high cost of living if the cities keep filling up and the food-producing population and organization show a relative decline. The movement towards the adaptation of rural organization to its conditions, which is calculated to make the country more attractive in every way, is a national service; but, to accomplish something worth while, it must not rest on sentiment alone. Hence all such studies as this excellent one of Dr. Vogt should be welcomed as providing the indispensable survey of the ground and criticism of existing expedients that must precede effective action.

LEAVITT and Brown's "Elementary Social Science" (Macmillan; 80 cents) is a book for students who leave school without completing the regular high-school course; its prime purpose "is to develop an interest in social, civic, and economic questions and to establish a point of view that will enable pupils to examine existing conditions and to consider without prejudice the problems that they suggest." This is an ambitious programme for a manual of 137 pages. Roughly, the first half of the treatment deals with economics, and the latter half with the rest of the social sciences. What is said about land, labor, and capital is sensible in a mildly didactic way; presumably it is no fault, considering the professed object of the book, that it is all obvious. The space devoted to the social sciences is taken up chiefly by disquisitions on public education, public health, and public morality. In a general way, it seems to us, little that is in this book should be very new to any bright youngster who follows the newspapers;

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if that is a mistaken opinion, then the said youngster doubtless ought to have a manual like this thrust relentlessly upon him. But when it comes to the assumption that the study of such a booklet will "establish a point of view" and render the student capable of wrestling with "problems," we are obliged to take issue. There seems, in these days, to be an impression abroad among students that if you have heard of a thing, you know all about it; a smattering of information is supposed to be a thoroughly satisfactory substitute for real study and reflection; the ideal of teaching appears to be to "tell" the pupil something, as entertainingly as possible. In our opinion one mark of this tendency is discoverable in the publication of little books such as the one before us. Naturally, an excellent teacher could make a good deal out of it which is not between its covers; but then, that sort of teacher is the *rara avis* whose presence is not to be counted upon.

BY whatever name called, the topics that Prof. Henry P. Fairchild considers in his "Outline of Applied Sociology" (Macmillan; $1.75) are important, and he brings to their examination both wisdom and knowledge. He has written an excellent text for the college classroom. The student will find in it unevasive information on controverted questions, and a common-sense guidance at every turn. It is a book, nevertheless, that will make intellectual trouble. Every teacher that uses it will ask, and in his own way will answer, the question, whether the subject-matter here presented is in any proper sense sociology, either pure or applied. Inasmuch as sociology of one or another sort has obtained a place in the curriculum, it is desirable now for pedagogic no less than for scientific reasons to decide, if possible, what concrete problems fall within its scope. Accepting Professor Sumner's analysis, Professor Fairchild finds the causes of social activities in elemental feelings, namely, hunger, love, vanity, and the fear of ghosts. From hunger proceed self-maintenance and the economic life. From love proceed self-perpetuation and the growth of population. From vanity proceed self-gratification and the æsthetic life. From the fear of ghosts (the "mana" theory of religious origins is not taken into account) proceed mental reactions, the intellectual life, and the spiritual life. Admitting that this scheme closely resembles that of Prof. Lester F. Ward, which also is based on the feelings, Professor Fairchild thinks that Ward's is less simply stated and is incomplete, "as it lacks anything to correspond with vanity." If this is important, what shall be said of a greater incompleteness of both schemes? Both forget "safety first," which, when great danger such as enemy invasion impends, is sought—and necessarily sought—in collective action, whereas other needs, including hunger, often can be satisfied by individual effort. Both schemes fail to indicate how, when, or where any elemental feeling causes coöperation in distinction from individual effort, even in family life. Both fail to identify any cause of pluralistic, in distinction from merely individual, behavior.

HOWEVER arising or explained, social activities having begun are normal or abnormal, and they may become efforts towards improvement. Insisting that the normal includes well-being and consistency or harmony with a scheme of things, Professor Fairchild properly contends that it is neither an average nor an ideal; but he strangely overlooks the all-important statistical conception of the normal as the case of most frequent occurrence, *i. e.*, the "modal." Applied sociology, guided by theory, exploits the possibilities of improvement. Its quest is utility, seeking which Professor Fairchild follows familiar trails through economic distribution, standards of living, and phenomena of the growth of population. So once more it turns out that applied sociology is applied economics, with excursions into divorce courts, jails and almshouses, recreation centres, and educational experiment stations, and one again wonders what is gained by calling it "sociology." From this "little go" there would seem no escape for sociology until it unequivocally takes pluralistic behavior as its subject-matter and develops a rigorous method from the statistical concept of normality as modality. That procedure, fixing attention upon quantitative mass relations, would compel recognition of great and persisting causes of collective or organized action, in distinction from individual effort, and applied sociology should then become the concern of the statesman no less than of the social worker. Its great problems would be those of the possible destruction of militarism, of the limits of collective efficiency under democracy, and of approximations to enduring peace. This was the large Spencerian conception, from which most of the later sociologists have fallen away.

ONE of the unexpected results of the great war is that attention has been drawn more markedly than ever before to the relation between working conditions and efficiency. The several reports of the English Committee on Health of Munition Workers are likely to prove for many years standard authorities on the question of the effect of the length of working hours on output. The English Government has afforded employers in controlled factories financial encouragement to provide restrooms and recreation facilities, and "lady welfare supervisors" have been appointed in all Government munition factories. Miss E. Dorothea Proud's "Welfare Work" (Macmillan; $3) appears, therefore, at a time when interest in the subject is keen. The book describes all the important forms of welfare work, and discusses also many topics that are not ordinarily considered within the field. There are, for example, sections dealing with hours and wages. The most characteristic feature of the book is the constant emphasis laid on the necessity of correctly appraising the attitude of the employed towards various forms of welfare work. Neglect of this precaution is shown to have wrecked many promising schemes. Miss Proud has studied welfare work both in Australia and Great Britain, and has had practical experience in the service of the Welfare Department of the Ministry of Munitions, and her book is by all odds the most complete and detailed exposition of the subject which has yet appeared.

THE food habits of families of small income in New York city have been made the subject of a study by Winifred S. Gibbs, entitled "The Minimum Cost of Living" (Macmillan; $1 net), which is of peculiar interest, now that the war has given prominence to the question of food-economy. The book is based upon the records of the New York Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor, and particularly upon an intensive study of seventy-five families, for each of which the Association, after study of individual conditions, drew up a model

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budget in food, clothing, rent, fuel and light, and sundries, its workers then assisting the families to approximate this budget. The showing which Miss Gibbs's summary makes is distinctly discouraging as to the diet of the unadvised family in poorer sections. As Mrs. L. B. More concluded in her well-known study of wage-earners' budgets in 1907, too much meat, bread, and potatoes are eaten, altogether too little is known of the cheap food values in milk and legumes, and fresh vegetables and fruits are sadly neglected. "The average family breakfasts on bread, sugar-buns, and tea. The noon meal will probably be 'something quick,' mayhap potato salad and ham from the delicatessen store, with more tea; while the hot supper, if there has been no interruption of pay-day, will always have meat, and almost always the meat will be fried. Besides this there will be potatoes and sometimes a vegetable, with fruit and coffee. 'The children must take what we do'—this means the strong coffee and tea, cold lunches and fried food, with no certainty of milk." Only three of the seventy-five families failed to exceed the budget-allowance for meat, and only six that for bread; not one of the families exceeded the standard milk allowance. Of the first twenty-five families studied, fifteen failed to keep within the sum allotted them for food. Yet all were readily amenable to instruction; and the book points clearly to both the need and practicability of comprehensive and consistent teaching among the urban poor in food economics.

Religion and Theology

"THE Pauline Idea of Faith," number II of Harvard Theological Studies, is the thesis presented to Union Theological Seminary, New York, by William H. P. Hatch, professor of New Testament in the General Seminary, for the degree of doctor of divinity (Harvard University Press). Dr. Hatch sets himself to answer the following questions: What is Christian faith, according to St. Paul? How was it related to the Hebrew "Trust in Jahveh" (to be pronounced, we presume, German fashion)? Was there in the Græco-Roman thought or the prevalent Oriental mystery cults of the time anything akin to the *faith* of Paul? He finds that Jewish faith, which Jesus shared, was simply "trust in a personal God," "wholly unmystical in character"; whereas the Pauline faith was essentially mystical, the means whereby, through divine grace, the believer attained a mystical fellowship with Christ, and that fellowship itself, to which are owing the Christian virtues, the chief of which is love. In other words, Paul combined with the Jewish idea of faith as trust in a personal God a mystical view akin to that of the Oriental mystery cults, as they had permeated and leavened Græco-Roman religious thought, although so strangely alien to the official Greek and Roman religions, at the commencement of the Christian era. But whereas in the mystery cults "the ideal of the initiate was identification with the deity," Paul's ideal is control and divinization by Christ without identification with Him. Moreover, whereas in the mystery cults the actual means of identification was the sacramental lustrations and meals, in Christianity as taught by St. Paul the sacraments were secondary; neither religion nor ethics are based upon them, "for faith alone —is the fundamental principle of Pauline Christianity." The Christian religion, therefore, as interpreted by St. Paul, while not a "mystery religion," as it later became in the Catholic Church of the second century, differed from the unsacramental Christianity of the primitive Palestinian Christians, and that difference was owing to a combination by St. Paul of originally Jewish conceptions of the relation of man to deity with the conceptions of the mystery cults mediated through Græco-Roman religious practices and philosophies.

IT was the good fortune of Prof. Alexander Souter, of Aberdeen, to discover several years ago the oldest extant book of a British author. It is a commentary on the Epistles of St. Paul, a work long known to scholars, but of uncertain authorship. Professor Souter proved beyond doubt that the writer was the British monk and celebrated heretic Pelagius, whom sound theologians from St. Augustine to McAndrews have abhorred. Professor Souter has recently added in the Proceedings of the British Academy, Vol. VII, an account (published separately by the Oxford University Press; 2s. 6d. net) of the "Character and History of Pelagius's Commentary on the Epistles of St. Paul." He here discusses, with accompanying facsimiles, the important manuscripts of the work, its text, and its contents. Especially interesting is the character of the text of St. Paul which Pelagius adopted. It is curiously similar to that of the Vulgate, the translation made by St. Jerome some twenty-five years before Pelagius wrote his work in 409 A. D. One would suppose off-hand that Pelagius, no intimate of St. Jerome or his coterie, would prefer some one of the Old-Latin versions on which to base his commentary; later scribes here and there would substitute the Vulgate, as that became more and more the accepted text. Professor Souter, however, is inclined to exactly the opposite view; namely, that Pelagius himself used the Vulgate, and that this was replaced by an Old-Latin version in certain later copies of his work. Pelagius might have wished to disarm part of any criticism coming from St. Jerome, the greatest Biblical scholar of the day, by at least agreeing with him on the text, the starting-point of interpretation. If Pelagius, then, really employed the Vulgate, he is by nearly a century and a half the earliest continuous and virtually complete witness to it in the portions which his commentary includes. This is a highly important consideration for editors of the Vulgate, particularly for the Papal Commission of editors established at the Benedictine Monastery of St. Anselmo in Rome. One of these scholars, Dom de Bruyne, the learned Benedictine of Maredsous, has a theory more startling still, which whether right or wrong is an earnest of the fearless and scientific spirit in which the Benedictine editors are pursuing their task. Dom de Bruyne believes that Pelagius himself is the author of the Vulgate text of the Epistles of St. Paul, his original version going through three revisions before it became the standard text of the Church. We cannot summarize here either Dom de Bruyne's arguments or the difficulties which still stand in the way. It would be interesting indeed if St. Jerome merely revised Pelagius instead of translating St. Paul straight from the Greek. The remainder of Professor Souter's paper is devoted to the different versions of the commentary, the palæographical characteristics of some of the manuscripts, and the nature of the commentary itself; we note, for instance, that Pelagius, like St. Jerome, was something of a humanist, finding quotations from Lucretius, Horace, Virgil, and Juvenal appropriate in a commentary on St. Paul.

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Professor Souter's studies, we are glad to learn, are the precursor of an elaborate edition of Pelagius's work, in the Cambridge "Texts and Studies."

MR. K. J. SAUNDERS, an able Pali scholar and warden of the Y. M. C. A. students' hostel in Rangoon, has written a very brief "Story of Buddhism" (Oxford University Press; 3s. 6d. net), which closely follows the plan of Farquhar's "Primer of Hinduism." Mr. Saunders's book, indeed, might well have been entitled a "Primer of Buddhism," for it aims at being nothing more. It is a mere outline of the subject, beginning with the life and the teachings of Gautama and tracing the history of the religion down to present-day conditions in all the principal Buddhist lands, both North and South. Mr. Saunders's many years in Burma have fitted him to present Buddhism as a really living religion; and the numerous illustrations, made from photographs, enable the reader, to some extent, to visualize present conditions. It is a pity that repeated tokens of partisanship should have crept into a book in many ways so excellent. The reader is not allowed to forget that the author is a Christian missionary, and that his aim is not only to present Buddhism, but to demonstrate that, in spite of its merits, it is markedly inferior to Christianity.

Science

GENERAL

THE nations now at war are making a systematic inventory of their intellectual and material assets. They are discussing the strength and the weakness of their systems of education and of business, in the hope that, when peace returns, they may resume normal life in a wiser fashion. To this end, the Cambridge University Press (G. P. Putnam) has issued "Science and the Nation, Essays by Cambridge Graduates, with an Introduction by the Rt. Hon. Lord Moulton." The purpose of these essays is to present the wisdom of a broader and more earnest cultivation of pure science and of applying it to private and public activities. In a series of thirteen essays, each written by a master of his subject, the claims of the various sciences to recognition are presented in a most attractive and reasonable manner. The writers are making a simple and direct appeal to the general and educated public. There is no undue exploitation of any one science; there is no attempt to minimize the importance of the humanities; on the contrary, there is an earnest appeal for a proper balance of these two branches of civilization. It is to be hoped that this movement will have strong support. Apparently, there is great danger of an attempt to substitute the vicious and short-sighted policy of promoting vocational and "practical" education for a sound study of pure science and the humanities. These essays show convincingly that correct practice must always rest on investigation and knowledge of abstract principles and phenomena.

PROF. WALTER LIBBY in "An Introduction to the History of Science" (Houghton Mifflin; $1.50) has not attempted to write a comprehensive history of science, but merely an introduction which will arouse the interest of rather young students. The most difficult thing in writing history is to arrange and to balance material; to make his task even more difficult, Professor Libby has divided his purpose in such a way as to obscure and to break the thread of his subject. He, apparently, tries to compress into one small volume a résumé of the history of all the sciences from the earliest times. In addition to this almost hopeless task, he wishes to attract and to influence the youth by showing the nobility of science, and, to this end, he is wont to insert such sentimental exhortations as: "The triumphs of Greek abstract thought teach the lesson that practical men should pay homage to speculation even when they fail to comprehend a fraction of it." He also wishes to exalt the national spirit, and he does it by devoting whole chapters to Franklin and Langley, which compels him to compress or to omit many of the really great achievements in science. He has an eye to the practical, as exemplified in the Carnegie Institute, and for this purpose he gives a chapter to Vitruvius; to balance this, the advance of science from 332 B. C. to Bacon is chronicled in one chapter, and Descartes, Galileo, and Copernicus in a few paragraphs. Lastly, in trying to exonerate science from the reproach of being aristocratic and atheistical, he concludes with a chapter advocating the democratization of education, and catalogues the church affiliation of many men of science.

AS a textbook, the work is of value in spite of this confusion. In the first place, there are almost no others available, and in addition Professor Libby has been accurate and his style is readable. The most unfortunate thing is that he does not make it clear what science is, nor how its main postulates were derived and developed. With these in his mind, he could not have written his first chapters on the beginnings of science. For example, he holds that the Greeks attained their impetus and much of their knowledge from Egypt and Babylonia. In doing so he quite confuses Greek science, as rational and organized knowledge, with the mere observations and achievements which are natural to men even in a rather primitive state—and to animals, too, for that matter. It is going rather far to hold that the Egyptians were a scientific people because they could measure land, had tools, and had observed that tadpoles changed to frogs. He notes the importance of fixing the cardinal points, but omits the natural conclusion that even savages have fixed on four because we are four-sided. He is of the opinion that the pyramids were orientated because it was necessary, in a land of shifting sand, to have one body remain fixed. But he does not tell how this fixed direction remained fixed in men's minds when the pyramids were out of sight. One short chapter is inadequate for Greek science when it forces him to omit the work of Plato and to skimp the mathematicians and physicians.

PHYSICS

PROF. EDWIN F. NORTHRUP has compiled a most useful reference handbook on the "Laws of Physical Science" (Lippincott; $2 net). Under the headings of the six great divisions of physics he has collected the laws and principles of the science. A judicious choice has been made from a large selection of authors, so that in each case the law might be given in its clearest and most exact form. The book is attractively got up, and includes a bibliography and an index.

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THE association of Professor Carhart and Mr. Chute has been a long one, and the character of their new preparatory textbook, "Physics with Applications" (Allyn and Bacon; $1.25), can be judged pretty accurately beforehand. The excuse for the undertaking is given in the preface. The authors aim to emphasize the practical aspects of physics and, by introducing commercial applications, to "present that side of the subject which makes the schoolboy look forward to the study of physics with keen anticipation." These practical aspects, so necessary to the fashionable trade, are apparently limited to some photographic pictures of British "tanks," locomotives, automobiles, waterfalls and dams, aeroplanes, distinguished men, and a brief chapter on electrical machines. This delusion of arousing keen anticipation is due either to the invincible "optimism" of the pedagogue or to the wiles of the publisher. It results in two evils; it subordinates the study of science, and the student, who first is attracted by pictures of remarkable achievements and feels that he too may be an Edison or a Marconi, is later discouraged when he finds that to understand requires long and difficult work on abstract principles. The text, like the others by these authors, is satisfactory and follows the methods of a dozen others. It may be well to point out that the chandelier so picturesquely shown in the Pisan Cathedral was not there when Galileo was distracted from his devotions. If there is an excuse for the flood of new texts, at least they should be quite free from errors by this time; the following examples indicate that this also was published for revenue only: On page 100, it is inexcusable to say of circular motion that it consists of uniform motion along the circumference instead of along the tangent; and, on page 108, we find the contradictory statements that a body in equilibrium has no motion, but that it does not follow that its velocity is zero. And again, on page 71, if inflowing wind on all sides is deflected towards the right, a counter-clockwise rotation will evidently not be given to a storm.

CHEMISTRY

THE need of a grounding in physical chemistry for students of physiology and medicine is now pretty generally recognized, and Prof. J. F. McClendon has constructed as such "a tool for physiological research" a text of 193 pages which he calls "Physical Chemistry of Vital Phenomena" (Princeton University Press; $2 net). In addition to the text is a copious list of the literature of the subject—mostly papers which have appeared in many journals—arranged alphabetically by authors, and followed by a useful subject index. The text itself is indexed only by a Table of Contents. A "Chemical Summary" forms an appendix of six pages. The field is one in which Professor McClendon has been an active worker for the past ten years, as is shown by the numerous papers by him to which reference is made; and in this thorough review and summary of recent research he has done good service for the students and research workers in biochemistry. Some of the brief statements in regard to fundamental matters are, perhaps, too concise and unconditioned, and some others need correction. For instance, it has been found, says the author, "that 1 gram molecule (mol) of a non-electrolyte, such as dextrose, dissolved in water to make 1 litre has an osmotic pressure of 22.4 atmospheres at 0°." As a matter of fact, this has never been found as an experimental result; the actual osmotic pressure of molal solutions, made at higher temperatures, indicating a considerably higher pressure than this at 0°; the figures given being those of the theoretical pressure of an "ideal" solution. We note, also, that in speaking of osmotic pressure the author says, "The solute exerts pressure on the membrane" which "is called osmotic pressure"; that "it seems probable that negative electrons have no weight"; that a litre flask "standardized at 15° would hold 0.4cc. too much at 30°," and immediately following this, "it holds about 998 g at 15° . . . and 995 at 30°"; that "the only advantage of the Beckmann thermometer is that it may be accessible." The term "colligative" was introduced by Ostwald and not by Washburn in 1915, as is implied on page 12. We cannot believe that the author expresses his meaning precisely when he says: "It is not to be *hoped* that theories should coincide exactly with the data available at present"; or when, after alluding to the discrepancies between the atomic weight determinations and the values calculated from the atomic numbers, he writes: "How much more uncertainty there *should* be about physiology" (italics are ours). If the reader of this book, as is certainly advisable, has had a course in physical chemistry, he will find occasion to use marginal question marks, or to make corrections, in a number of places. Defects of the sort pointed out are, however, only slight and somewhat excusable misadventures in the first edition of a volume which has so much to commend it, and which is a noteworthy and valuable contribution to scientific literature.

PROF. E. H. S. BAILEY'S "Sanitary and Applied Chemistry" (Macmillan; $1.60) appears this year—the eleventh since its first publication—in a fourth, revised edition. Its persistence in recurring editions is testimony to the place it has won for itself in our colleges. Designed for students who have already had a course in general chemistry, it deals with the most important applications of chemistry to the life of the household, without attempting to cover the whole field of what may be called "chemistry in daily life." An important feature of the book is the introduction of directions for performing many well-chosen illustrative experiments. In this latest edition, the text has been corrected and much of it rewritten and brought down to date; and chapters on Textiles and on Poison and their Antidotes have been added, increasing the contents by about 60 pages over the last previous edition of 1913. A good index enhances the working value of the text.

ZOÖLOGY

AS literature or even as readable matter "A Manual of the Common Invertebrate Animals," by H. S. Pratt (McClurg; $3.50 net), which comprises seven hundred pages, with a thousand illustrations, takes rank with a census report or a telephone directory. And yet it is probably the most valuable contribution to amateur naturalists and zoölogists which has appeared for many years. This estimate, on the other hand, detracts in no way from the status of the volume as a strictly scientific and technical work. But its main value will be to the host of young students, whose interest in their collections, in their first beginnings of microscopical work, in their natural history loot gathered from fields and from waters,

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is always focussed and stimulated by the ability to "find out the name." Ordinary difficulties of identification, arising from inaccessibility or obscure presentation of the data of reference volumes, or from indifference of authorities in museums and elsewhere, have discouraged, and turned to other activities innumerable keen young nature lovers. Professor Pratt's volume contains descriptions, with keys, of all the common invertebrate creatures, except insects, which inhabit the Eastern and Central United States and Canada. Furthermore, the analytical tables and descriptions of species of all the larger groups of animals are preceded by a morphological description of the group, with some account of the distribution and habits. Reference to important treatises and monographs are given as foot-notes. A brief, well-condensed history of classification is an excellent feature, and the volume is rounded out by a complete list of the authors of scientific names, with a line or two of biography to each. There is a good glossary and a thorough index. The thousand-odd illustrations are all familiar line cuts of textbook style, well chosen and clearly reproduced. The faults are almost altogether those due to the condensation necessary to the limits of a single volume. The uncoated paper does away with extra weight. This is the first attempt of its kind achieved in this country, and it is admirable in almost every particular. The most serious lack is the absence of all common names, except in the case of groups. For this there is no excuse, not even the fact that for most of the species no common names at present exist. A pioneer attempt such as this should have been emphasized and made of still wider interest by the composition of suitable common English names. If such a suggestion should be adopted for the second edition, it would neither pander to the over-popularization of zoölogy nor detract a whit from the dignity of the volume's contribution to technical science.

BIOLOGY AND MEDICINE

"THE Fundamentals of Bacteriology," by Charles Bradford Morrey (Philadelphia: Lea & Febiger; $3 net), is based on the author's course in general bacteriology as given at the Ohio State University. It is a comprehensive treatise presenting the theory, principles, and technique of bacteriology as a necessary preliminary to advanced work in pathogenic, dairy, soil, water, or chemical bacteriology. As an introduction to these special fields it is excellent.

DR. K. WINSLOW'S book, "The Prevention of Disease" (Saunders; $1.75), should be acceptable to those members of the laity who desire a simple, non-technical description of the nature and mode of conveyance of the contagious diseases. The author is fortunate in the method he adopts. He does not attempt to lay a preliminary foundation of anatomical knowledge, an effort that is almost always futile because it seeks to furnish by diagram and description the kind of knowledge that can only be obtained by first-hand acquaintance with the things themselves. He uses the more effective mode of stating fundamental results simply and clearly and in terms comprehensible to any intelligent reader. He is unsparing in his condemnation of all habits and customs that are unhygienic. Extenuating circumstances are not considered even in the matter of a habit so widespread and on the whole so little productive of evil as the use of tobacco. In spite of this somewhat uncompromising attitude, the book contains much sensible and timely advice that will be helpful to all seekers after good health.

NEWSHOLMES'S "School Hygiene" (Macmillan; $1.25 net) has long been a popular and trustworthy source of information on subjects pertaining to school hygiene. Dr. Kerr's revision brings the book up to date and gives a fair statement of the numerous factors, physical, mental, and medical, that must be taken into consideration by those charged with the education of the young. There is some indication in places of the fault referred to briefly above, the attempt to give an anatomical and physiological basis in a form so condensed as to be intelligible only to those who happen to know the subject well beforehand.

"THE problems of shell shock are the every-day problems of nervous breakdown." This text G. E. Smith and T. H. Pear, authors of "Shell Shock and Its Lessons" (Longmans, Green; $1 net), elaborate in a simple non-technical exposition, and they suggest methods for the treatment not only of this condition but of similar nervous conditions in time of peace. The book is essentially an argument for the care after the war of the mentally or nervously handicapped. "Shell shock" is only one of the many problems brought to the attention of scientists for solution as a war problem. Much has been done to this end, but, ask the authors, is the knowledge gained to be set aside at the end of the war? Shell shock has brought no new symptoms. It differs from other disordered states of mind only in its intensity and wide-spreading causes. The war has forced upon the medical profession a rational and humane method of caring for and treating mental disorders among soldiers. Special hospitals, suggestion, hypnosis, psychoanalysis, reëducation, and other methods enter into this treatment. The individual is considered to be only temporarily—not permanently—mentally impaired, and every effort is made to bring about his cure. In times of peace mental and nervous breakdowns very similar to so-called "shell shock" are common, but the civilian treatment—or lack of treatment—presupposes in most instances a permanent mental defect. The great lesson of the war to psychologist and psychiatrist is, in brief, that every institution for the mentally unfit should have its psychiatric clinic and its staff for research and should cease to be merely a home for the handicapped. "The civilian should be offered the facilities for cure which have proved such a blessing to the war-stricken soldier."

GEOLOGY

IT is a difficult matter to give a "simmered down" presentation of any subject that shall be at the same time both informing and interesting. Prof. W. J. Miller would seem, however, to have covered more ground than would be indicated by his modest characterization of his new work as "An Introduction to Historical Geology, with Special Reference to North America" (Van Nostrand; $2 net). He has likewise produced a book that is, in sections at least, distinctly readable for general as well as for special students. The first two chapters briefly relate the general stratigraphic principles of the significance of fossils, the

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correlation of rock formations, and the determination of paleogeography—including a characterization of the larger divisions of animals and plants and a tabulation of the geologic periods. In the chapter on the origin of the earth, both nebular and planetesimal hypotheses are clearly presented, with the greater and more approving emphasis upon the latter, which represents the present tendency among geologists. Pre-Cambrian time is discussed under the chapter headings of the Archeozoic era and the Proterozoic era. In the remainder of the book the periods of earth history from Cambrian to Quaternary are presented according to a regular plan which proceeds from the origin of the name and the subdivisions through a discussion of the rocks, physical history, and climate, to that of the life of the period. Perhaps the most original feature of the book is the extremely readable summary of the physical history or paleogeography that is given in the discussion of each period. The student is shown how, from the distribution and character of the rocks of a given period, he may reconstruct ancient shore lines, may see in retrospect the inland seas and the salt lakes of the North America of the past. The discussion of the data upon which this ancient geography rests is sufficient to satisfy the special student, while the dynamic descriptions interest the general reader in the evolutionary sweep of the processes which have modified the earth from Cambrian times to the present. Maps of rock outcrops and of paleogeographic North America accompany the discussion of each period. Special reference should be made to the compact tabular summaries of the Paleozoic and of the Mesozoic eras. There is a certain lack of definiteness and character in the discussion of the life of the periods which may perhaps be owing in part to the attempt at simplicity in the matter of technical terms, leading to the omission of the specific and generic names of fossils, and in part to the strict adherence to a certain order of presentation. This regular plan of discussion, however, in company with the detailed topical arrangement of the subject-matter, makes the book more than usually valuable for reference. Comparison of the successive periods is likewise thus made easy, so that as the student proceeds from chapter to chapter the general trend of the evolution of the land masses and of the larger groups of organisms is clearly discernible.

A Communication

MR. FLEXNER'S MODERN SCHOOL

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: On the first page of Mr. Flexner's pamphlet, "A Modern School," he says, "Traditional methods and purposes are strong enough to maintain most of the traditional curriculum and to confuse the handling of material introduced in response to the pressure of the modern spirit. It is therefore still true that the bulk of the time and energy of our children at school is devoted to formal work developed by schoolmasters without close or constant reference to genuine individual or social need."

If the last sentence means anything at all, it means that schoolmasters, that is, our whole public school force, have developed and are imposing on the young people of this country, without considering what they actually need, "formal work not in harmony with the modern spirit," and that they have done this in abject subjection to tradition. It would be difficult to make a statement concerning the workers in our public school that is further from the truth than this.

For thirty years to my personal knowledge, and for many years prior to that, as one may learn from the books, school men and women have devoted themselves continuously and persistently to the task of working out a proper school curriculum. They wished to make one which should add to the equipment which young people acquire by and through their out-of-school life such equipment as every American citizen finds absolutely essential in meeting the conditions of "modern" society. The problem they had before them is this: A child, in those first fourteen years during a very small part of which the influence of the public school is brought to bear upon him—I am here leaving out the very few children who pass on to high school and college—has about 80,000 hours of waking life. During these hours he is constantly in touch with "modern" society. He learns first himself, discovers his periphery and his powers; and then he learns others; and then he learns life as it is; and he performs thousands, yes, millions, of acts whereby he adjusts his brain and all his powers and faculties to the demands of the life he lives, which is very "modern." Thus the child is educated. But there are a few essential things which can be acquired by the average child only through what is commonly called formal education, the education of the teacher and the schoolroom. These he does not acquire in the first fourteen years from contact with his environment—his home, his family, the whole social fabric, and nature.

The schoolman's problem, then, is to give the child, or to induce him to acquire, in the few short hours during which the habits of our society permit the school to guide the child's activities, these few fundamental and essential things which, in some degree, complete his equipment for life.

These essentials are: skill in reading, mastery of writing, some slight skill in arithmetic, some acquaintance with geography, some slight knowledge of music, some slight knowledge of drawing, and some slight knowledge of his own body and the proper care of it.

The time granted to the schoolman in which he may impart to the children the information above briefly hinted at is, even in the most progressive parts of the country, only 8,000 out of the 80,000 hours in which, up to his fifteenth year, the child is awake and active. This time is very short for the purpose. But most children have granted to them even less. Indeed, it would be difficult to find in this country to-day more than a few thousand persons who, at the age of fifteen, had had 8,000 hours of schoolroom life. For the vast majority of them, it was nearer 5,000 than 8,000.

Schoolmen have found very difficult the task of giving, in the time named, to the child of average intelligence the training and information which it is generally agreed he should have. Some of the ablest men and women in this country have, during the past seventy-five years, studied the problems of time arrangements for presenting to children these several things—their sequence, when and how much of each, and the problem of method of presentation. These problems have never been solved to the satisfaction of those who have studied them. But always one thought has been in the schoolman's mind: how can he, in a few of the hours of a child's life before he is fifteen, give that child that content of knowledge and that training in atten-

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tion and concentration which it is universally admitted he should have?

And now comes Mr. Flexner and, in defiance of obvious facts, declares that the schools to-day are pursuing subjects and following methods born only of tradition. The veriest tyro in the educational field knows better.

May I add that I have no prejudice against experiments in education. No school can do much for any child, and in no school can any save the unusual child receive much harm. I do object, however, to the widespread publication, with the backing of a thirty-million-dollar foundation, of a universal damnation of workers in and for our public schools. *Noblesse oblige* is as proper and potent a legend for the man of dollars as it is for the man of breeding; and Mr. Flexner owes it to the country to speak for and through the power of millions of dollars only with knowledge, always with discretion, and inevitably for the truth.

The fundamental weakness in all that Mr. Flexner has put forth on education lies in his failure to note the obvious. He assumes that the average child is a *tabula rasa* pure and simple when he comes to school, and that the tablets of his intellect and sensibilities are affected in and by the school and by it only. He wants the school to be "modern." But, Heaven save the mark! the child is already "modern" when he comes to school; and out of school and every day and year of his school life he gets more "modern" still. The curse of the "education" which a child gets in his 80,000 waking hours before he is fifteen is that very "modernity" with which Mr. Flexner wishes to anoint him, through a curriculum and a method which shall steep him in the life he daily lives.

JOHN COTTON DANA.

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